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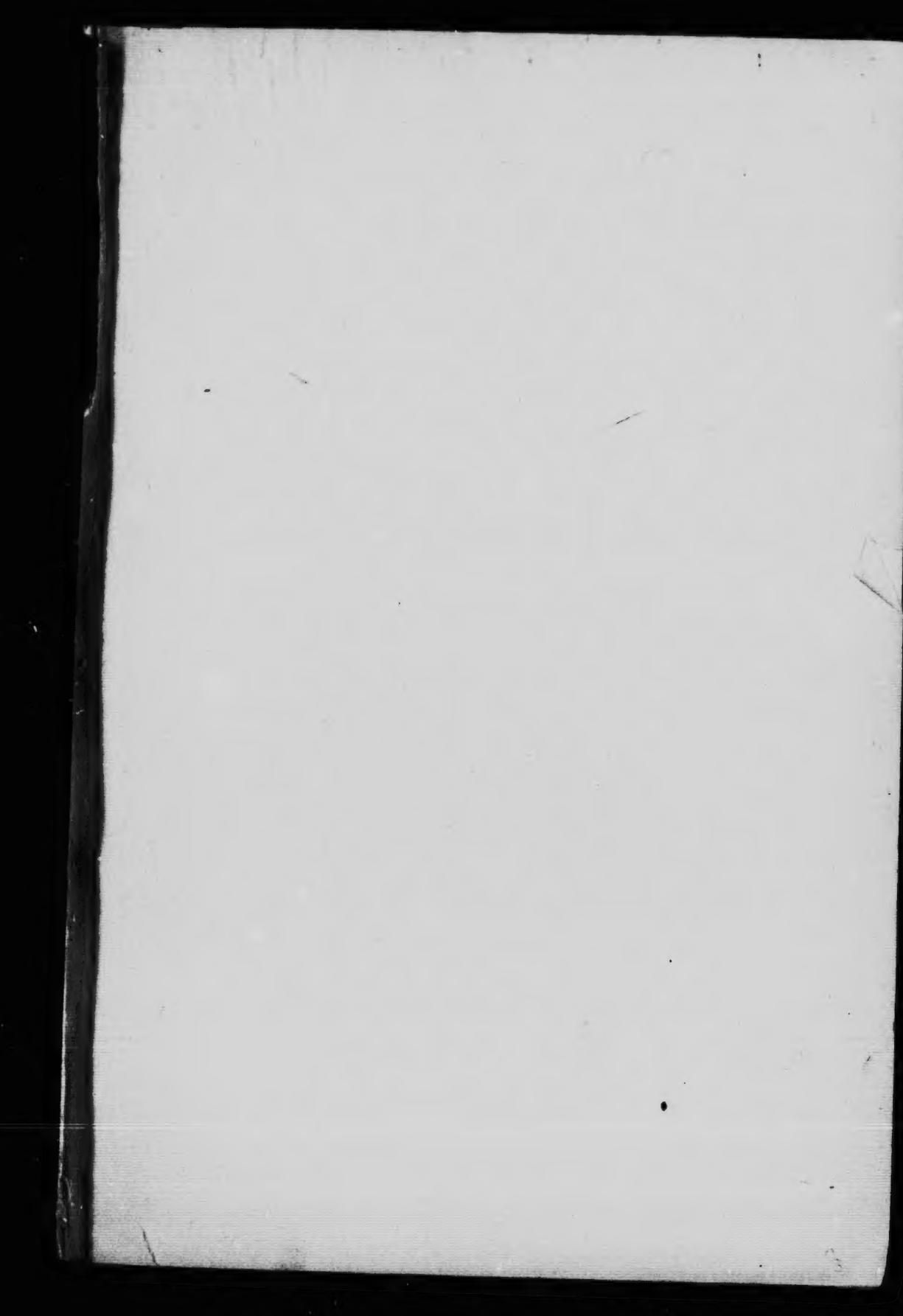
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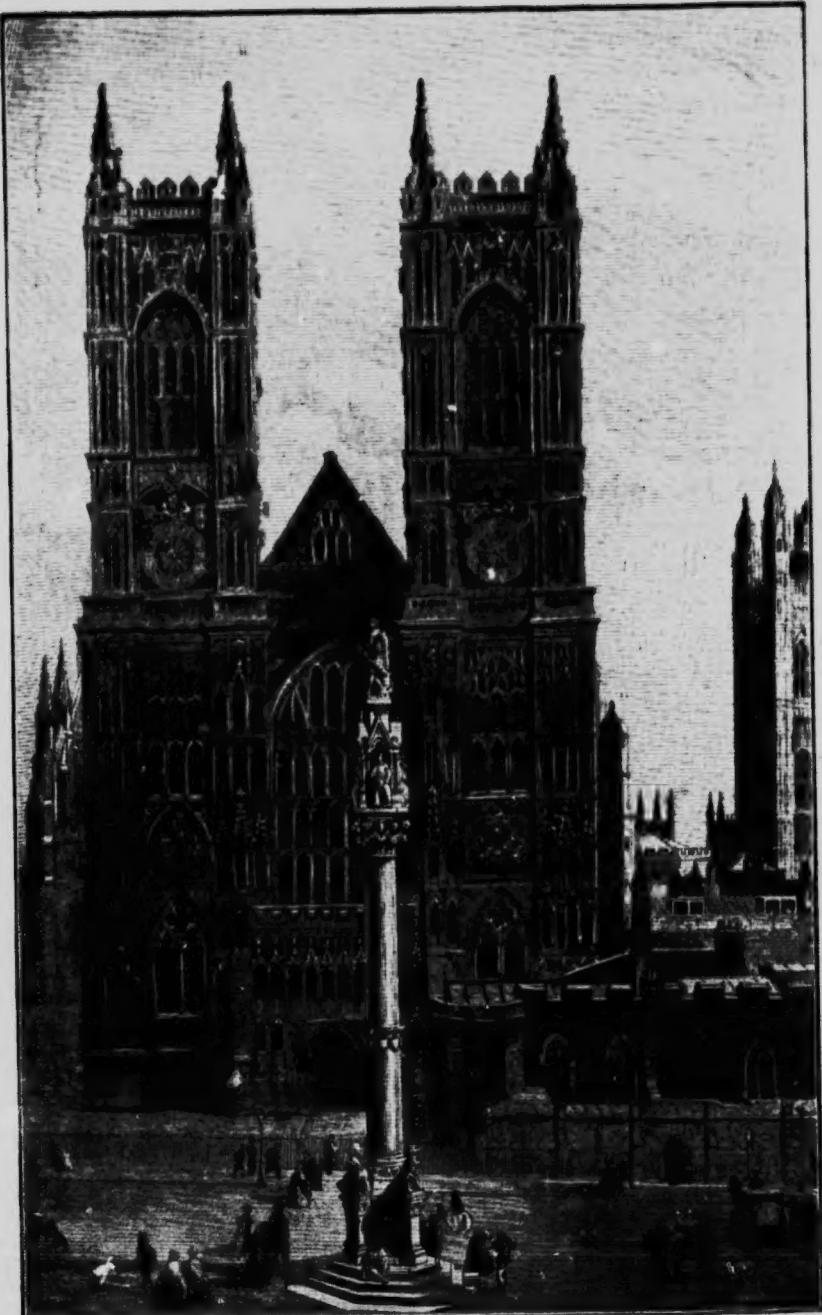
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WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

MORANG'S MODERN TEXT-BOOKS

BRITAIN AND THE EMPIRE

BY

J. HAROLD PUTMAN, B.A.
HEADMASTER PROVINCIAL MODEL SCHOOL, OTTAWA

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1904

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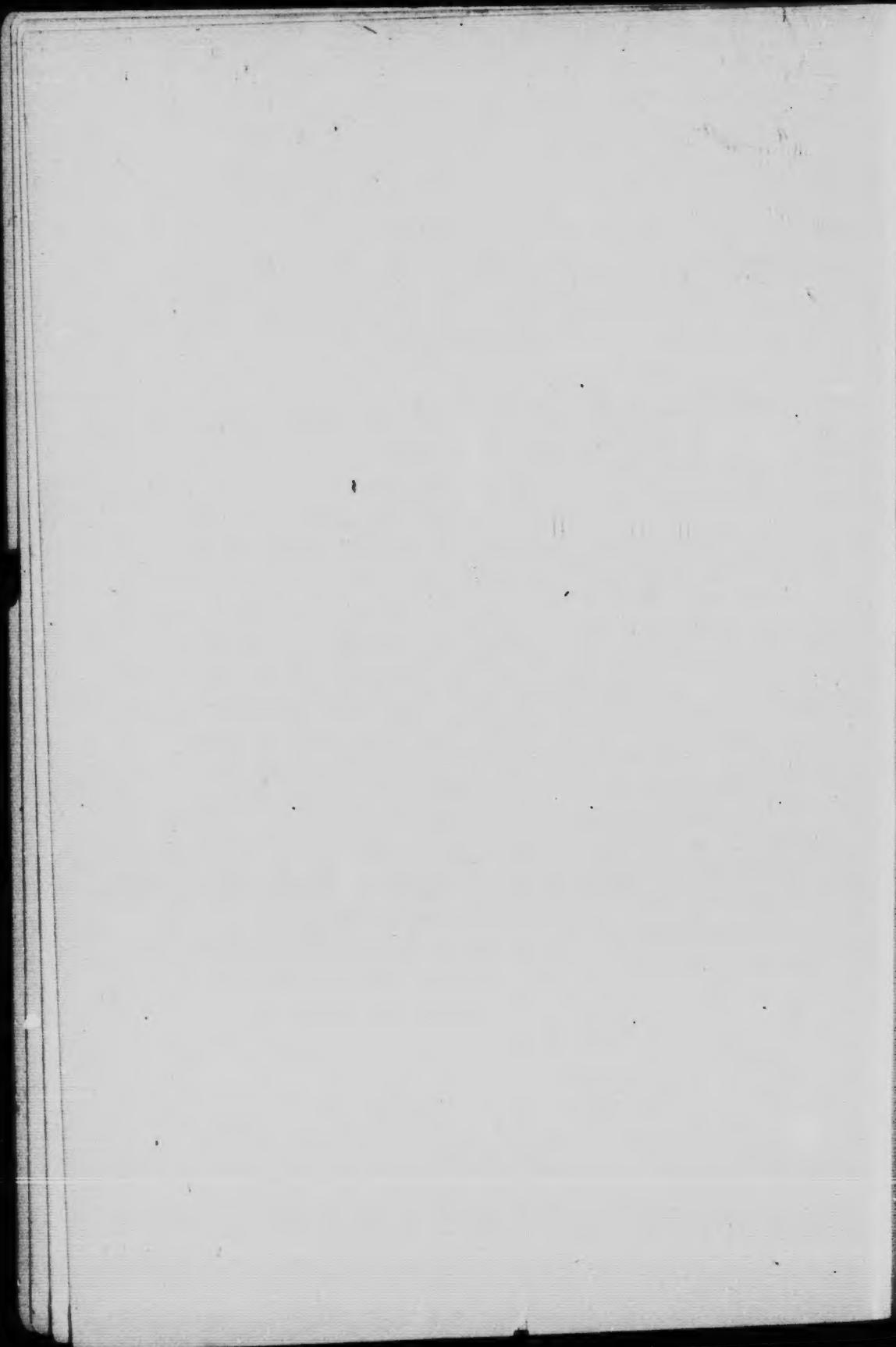
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PREFACE

THIS book is intended primarily as a text-book for children. Believing that an elementary text-book on history need not touch upon every event of the period treated, the author has not hesitated to omit all reference to many topics that should be fully treated in a book for advanced students. The aim has been to touch only upon those events which are of primary importance, and especially upon those which could be invested with some degree of interest. As far as possible the biographical method has been adopted; events have been grouped about great men. As the title indicates, special stress has been laid upon the building of the Empire. The illustrations have been chosen with the greatest care and with the object of assisting in the understanding of the text.

The author wishes to thank the many friends to whom he is indebted for information and suggestions. He is under special obligations to the officials of the Parliamentary Library of Canada. Valuable books, pamphlets, and copies of original documents were freely placed at his disposal.

PROVINCIAL MODEL SCHOOL,
OTTAWA, February 15, 1904.



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IMPORTANT DATES

THE ROMAN PERIOD. 55 B.C.-410 A.D.

- | | |
|---------|--|
| 55 B.C. | Cæsar invades Britain. |
| 54 B.C. | Cæsar's second invasion. |
| 43 A.D. | The Roman conquest begins. |
| 61. | Boadicea's rebellion. |
| 78-85. | Agricola firmly establishes Roman power. |
| 120. | The wall of Hadrian built. |
| 210. | The wall of Severus built. |
| 410. | The Romans leave Britain. |

THE SAXONS AND THE DANES. 410-1066

- | | |
|------------|---|
| 449. | The Saxons land on Thanet. |
| 563. | Columba went to Iona. |
| 597. | Augustine preaches Christianity in Britain. |
| 735. | Death of Bede, the first English historian. |
| 829. | Egbert becomes king of Britain. |
| 871-901. | Alfred the Great. |
| 878. | Treaty of Wedmore. |
| 1016-1042. | The Danes rule over England. |
| 1043-1066. | Edward the Confessor. |
| 1066. | Battle of Senlac, or Hastings. |

THE NORMAN PERIOD. 1066-1154

- | | |
|------------|-----------------------------|
| 1066-1087. | William the Conqueror. |
| 1086. | Doomsday Book completed. |
| 1087-1100. | William II. |
| 1095. | First Crusade. |
| 1100-1135. | Henry I. |
| 1100. | First charter of liberties. |
| 1106. | Battle of Tinchebrai. |
| 1135-1154. | Stephen. |

IMPORTANT DATES

1138. Battle of the Standard.
 1147. Second Crusade.
 1153. Treaty of Wallingford.

THE ANGEVIN PERIOD. 1154-1399

- 1154-1189. **Henry II.**
 1162. Thomas à Becket becomes Archbishop of Canterbury.
 1164. Constitutions of Clarendon.
 1170. Murder of Becket.
 1171. English rule in Ireland begins.
 1189-1199. **Richard I.**
 1189. Many towns receive charters.
 1190. Joins the Third Crusade.
 1197. The "Saucy Castle" built.
 1199-1216. **John.**
 1204. The "Saucy Castle" captured by the French.
 1208. England placed under an interdict.
 1214. Battle of Bouvines.
 1215. Magna Charta signed.
 1216-1272. **Henry III.**
 1258. Provisions of Oxford.
 1265. The first English Parliament summoned.
 The battle of Evesham.
 1272-1307. **Edward I.**
 1276-1294. Conquest of Wales.
 1290. Jews banished from England.
 1295. First complete Parliament called.
 1296. Outbreak of war with Scotland.
 1298. Battle of Falkirk.
 1306. Bruce crowned king of Scotland.
 1307-1327. **Edward II.**
 1314. Battle of Bannockburn.
 1327-1377. **Edward III.**
 1338. The Hundred Years' War begins.
 1340. Battle of Sluys.
 1346. Battle of Crécy.
 1347. Capture of Calais.
 1349. The Black Death.

IMPORTANT DATES

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- 1349. Statute of Labourers.
- 1353. Statute of Prerogative.
- 1356. Battle of Poitiers.
- 1360. Treaty of Bretigny.
- 1377-1399. Richard II.
- 1381. The Peasants' Revolt.

THE PERIOD OF YORK AND LANCASTER. 1399-1485

- 1399-1413. Henry IV.
- 1400. Death of Chaucer.
- Rebellion in Wales.
- 1403. Battle of Shrewsbury.
- 1413-1422. Henry V.
- 1415. Battle of Agincourt.
- 1430. Treaty of Troyes.
- 1422-1461. Henry VI.
- 1429. The siege of Orleans.
- 1453. End of the Hundred Years' War.
- The Turks capture Constantinople.
- 1455. Wars of the Roses begin.
- 1461. Battle of Towton.
- 1461-1483. Edward IV.
- 1475. "Benevolences" originated.
- 1476. Caxton introduces printing into England.
- 1483. Edward V.
- 1483-1485. Richard III.
- 1485. Battle of Bosworth.

THE TUDOR PERIOD. 1485-1603

- 1485-1509. Henry VII.
- 1492. Columbus discovers America.
- 1497. The Cabots sail to America.
- 1509-1547. Henry VIII.
- 1513. Battle of Flodden.
- 1515. Wolsey becomes Lord Chancellor.
- 1516. Sir Thomas More publishes "Utopia"
- 1520. Field of the Cloth of Gold.
- 1527. Divorce of Catherine resolved on.

IMPORTANT DATES

1529. Fall of Wolsey.
 1534. Authority of Pope in England abolished.
 1535. The king made supreme head of the church.
 1536. Death of Sir Thomas More.
 1536. The lesser monasteries dissolved.
 1536-1537. Pilgrimage of Grace.
 1539. The remaining monasteries dissolved.
 1540. Act of the Six Articles.
 1540. Execution of Cromwell.
 1547-1553. Edward VI.
 1549. English Prayer-Book adopted.
 1552. Blue-coat School established.
 1553-1558. Mary I.
 1553. Lady Jane Grey reigns for twelve days.
 1558. Loss of Calais.
 1558-1603. Elizabeth.
 1559. Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity.
 1563. The Thirty-nine Articles made compulsory.
 1577. Drake begins his voyage round the world.
 1587. Execution of Mary Queen of Scots.
 1588. Defeat of the Spanish Armada.

THE STUART PERIOD

- 1603-1625. James I.
 1604. Hampton Court Conference.
 1605. Gunpowder Plot.
 1607. Virginia founded.
 1611. Translation of the Bible.
 1618. Execution of Sir Walter Raleigh.
 1620. The Plymouth Colony begins.
 1621. Disgrace of Bacon.
 1624. War with Spain.
 1625-1649. Charles I.
 1628. Petition of Right.
 1629. Members of Parliament imprisoned.
 1630. Ship-money demanded.
 1637. Attempts to force Episcopacy upon Scotland.
 1640. The Long Parliament meets.

IMPORTANT DATES

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1641. Execution of Strafford.
1642. The Grand Remonstrance.
Civil War breaks out.
Battle of Edgehill.
1643. The Solemn League and Covenant.
1644. Battle of Marston Moor.
1645. Battle of Naseby.
1647.
1648. The Scots surrender Charles to the Parliament.
Pride's Purge.
1649. Execution of Charles I.
1649-1660. **The Commonwealth and Protectorate.**
1649. Cromwell in Ireland.
1650. Battle of Dunbar.
1651. Battle of Worcester.
1652. War with Holland.
1653. Cromwell expels the Long Parliament.
Cromwell made Lord Protector.
1656. War with Spain.
1658. Dunkirk captured.
Death of Cromwell.
1660. Richard Cromwell becomes Protector.
The Long Parliament dissolved.
Prince Charles invited to the throne.
1660-1685. **Charles II.**
1661. Corporation Act.
1662. Act of Uniformity.
1664. New York captured from Holland.
1665. The Great Plague.
1666. The Great Fire of London.
“Paradise Lost” published.
The Treaty of Dover.
1670. The Popish Plot.
1679. The Habeas Corpus Act.
1683. Rye House Plot.
1685-1688. **James II.**
1685. Monmouth’s Rebellion.
Battle of Sedgemoor.
1687. Declaration of Indulgence.

IMPORTANT DATES

1688. Trial of the Seven Bishops.
Arrival of William of Orange.
James is dethroned.
- 1688-1702. William III and Mary II.
1689. Bill of Rights.
Siege of Londonderry.
Battle of Killiecrankie.
1690. Battle of the Boyne.
1692. Battle of La Hogue.
Massacre of Glencoe.
1694. Death of Mary II.
1697. Treaty of Ryswick.
- 1702-1714. Anne.
1702. War of the Spanish Succession begins.
1704. Capture of Gibraltar.
Battle of Blenheim.
1706. Battle of Ramillies.
1707. Union of England and Scotland.
1708. Battle of Oudenarde.
1709. Battle of Malplaquet.
1713. Treaty of Utrecht.

HANOVERIAN PERIOD. 1714-

- 1714-1727. George I.
1715. The Jacobite Rebellion.
1716. The Septennial Act.
1720. The South Sea Bubble.
- 1727-1760. George II.
1738. Rise of Methodism.
1742. Fall of Walpole.
1743. Battle of Dettingen.
1745. The Jacobite Rebellion.
1746. Battle of Fontenoy.
1748. Battle of Culloden.
1748. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.
1752. New calendar adopted in Britain.
1756. The Seven Years' War breaks out.
1759. Defeat of General Braddock.

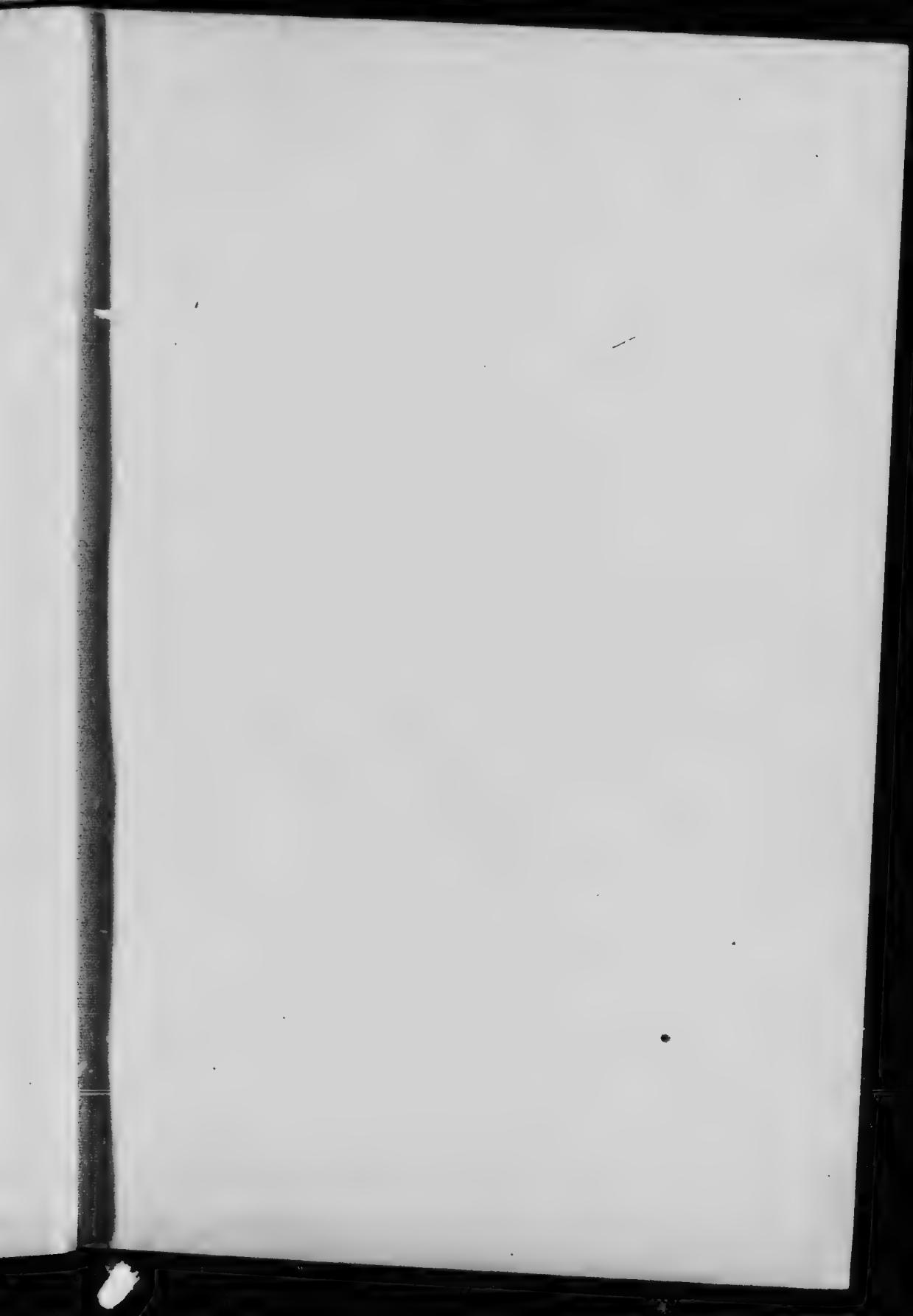
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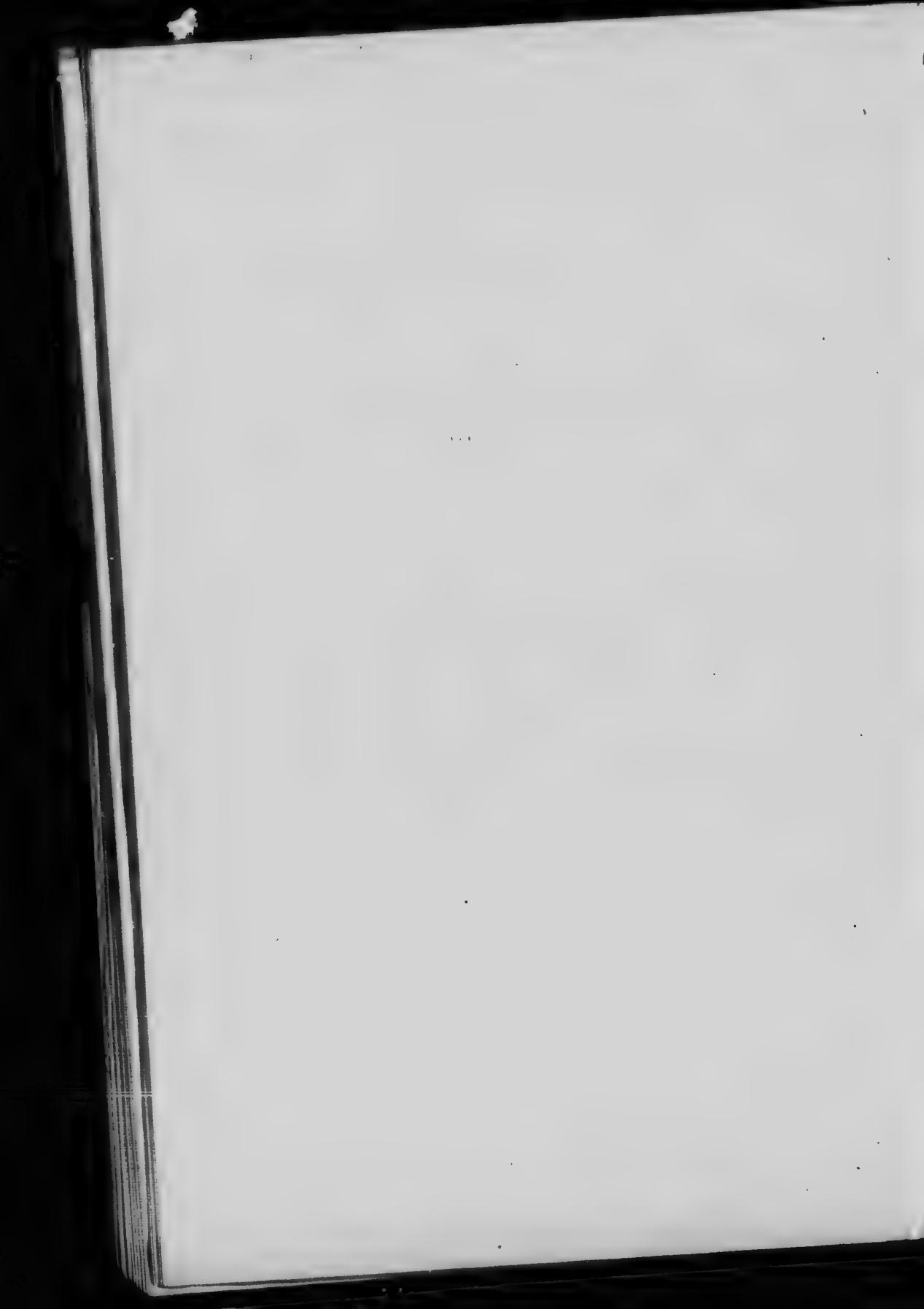
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- 1756. The Black Hole of Calcutta.
- 1757. Battle of Plassey.
- 1758. Pitt assumes control of the Administration.
- 1759. Capture of Louisburg.
- 1760. Capture of Quebec.
- 1761. Battle of Minden.
- 1760-1820. Hawke defeats the French at Quiberon Bay.
George III.
- 1763. Treaty of Paris.
- 1764. Prosecution of Wilkes.
- 1765. The Stamp Act.
- 1766. The Stamp Act repealed.
- 1769. The "Letters of Junius" begin.
- 1773. Tea thrown into Boston Harbour.
- 1774. Boston Port Bill.
- 1775. First Continental Congress.
- 1776. The Quebec Act.
- 1775. Battle of Lexington.
- 1776. Invasion of Canada.
- 1779-1782. Declaration of Independence.
- 1780. Siege of Gibraltar.
- 1781. The Gordon Riots.
- 1782. Surrender of Cornwallis.
- 1783. Rodney defeats the French in the West Indies.
- 1783. Treaty of Versailles.
- 1789. The French Revolution breaks out.
- 1793. Britain declares war against France.
- 1797. Battles of St. Vincent and Camperdown.
- 1798. Battle of the Nile.
- 1800. Union of Great Britain and Ireland.
- 1801. Battle of the Baltic.
- 1802. Treaty of Amiens.
- 1805. Battle of Trafalgar and death of Nelson.
- 1808. The Peninsular War begins.
- 1812-1814. War with the United States of America.
- 1815. Battle of Waterloo.
- 1820-1830. **George IV.**
- 1828. Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts.

IMPORTANT DATES

1829. Catholic Emancipation Act.
 1830-1837. William IV.
 1832. The Reform Bill passed.
 1833. Colonial slavery abolished.
 First "Factory Act."
1837-1901. Victoria.
 1837. Rebellion in Canada.
 1839. War with China.
 The Chartist Agitation begins.
 Penny Postage established.
 1840. The Afghan War.
 1842. Repeal of the Corn Laws.
 1846. Great Chartist demonstration.
 1848. Famine in Ireland.
 1852. Death of the Duke of Wellington.
1854-1855. The Crimean War.
 1857. The Indian Mutiny.
 1858. Jews allowed to sit in Parliament.
 1866. Second Reform Bill.
 1867. Dominion of Canada formed.
 1869. Disestablishment of the Irish church.
 1870. Education Act passed.
 1872. Ballot Act passed.
 1876. The Queen proclaimed Empress of India.
 1879. The Zulu War.
 1880. The first Boer War.
 1881. Death of Lord Beaconsfield.
 1884. The Third Reform Bill.
 1886. Gladstone's Home Rule Bill defeated.
 1887. Jubilee of the Queen.
 1889. Diamond Jubilee of the Queen.
 1897. Death of Gladstone.
 1898. The capture of Khartoum.
1899-1902. Second Boer War.
 1901. Commonwealth of Australia formed.
Edward VII.
 1901- Irish Land Purchase Bill passed.
 1903. Alaskan Boundary award.





BRITAIN AND THE EMPIRE

CHAPTER I

THE ROMANS, 55 B.C.—410 A.D.

1. **Cæsar invades Britain.**—The great Roman general, Julius Cæsar, was fighting with the fierce tribes of Gaul, the country which is now known as France. Rome was then the greatest power in the world, and Cæsar was the greatest Roman. He was so clever a general, and was so beloved by his soldiers, that he was scarcely ever beaten in battle. But this time the northern tribes held out for a long time against him, and at last he discovered that they were receiving aid from tribes that lived on an island farther north. This made Cæsar very curious to know what these people were like, and he knew also that unless he made himself feared by them he would never feel safe in Gaul. In addition he had learned that there were valuable mines of tin in this unknown island.

*Cæsar hears
of Britain*

So in the year 55 B.C. he crossed over with his legions from Gaul. He set out one night with about ten thousand men, and early on the next day the warships anchored on the southeastern coast. It can

scarcely be said that they came to land, because they drew so much water that the soldiers had to leap into the sea, and weighted with their heavy ^{Cæsar crosses to Britain} armour wade to shore through the tumbling surf. The native Britons met them, fierce and undaunted, and armed with lances, battle-axes, clubs, and bows and arrows. There was a fierce contest, but the Romans finally secured a landing. Cæsar, however, did not feel strong enough to stay very long on the island, and in a few weeks he sailed back to Gaul.



JULIUS CÆSAR.

stronger force and ten thousand cavalry. Great hordes of blue-eyed warriors, clad in skins, and with their bodies stained with dye, again opposed his landing. Many of them fought from chariots, which they managed very skilfully. The driver would dash swiftly into the midst of the enemy, and when two or three Roman soldiers were somewhat separated from their comrades, the Britons would leap from their chariots and overpower them. During this time the charioteer would remain near, to hurry his companions away if they were too sorely pressed. In spite of their bravery they were without disci-

2. Cæsar's Second Invasion. — The next year

Cæsar came back with a

pline, and Cæsar's well-ordered troops pressed steadily onward and conquered the country that lay beyond the Thames. First one tribe and then another was conquered and promised to pay Britons bow to Rome tribute to Rome. Cæsar then quitted the island without leaving behind him any garrisons of Roman soldiers. Cæsar did not return to Britain, and eleven years later was murdered. After his death there followed in Rome a terrible civil war. The Roman soldiers were busy fighting other enemies, and for many years all thought of making Britain a part of the Empire was given up.

3. Roman Conquest of Britain.

— Ninety-eight

years after Cæsar first landed on the island the Emperor Claudius set about the conquest of the Britons in earnest. He sent one of his generals with an army of forty thousand men, and in a short time the most powerful of the British tribes made submission. Caractacus, the chief British general, was driven into exile, but soon returned to Britain and renewed the struggle. He was captured, and taken to Rome, but his proud bearing in captivity so delighted the Roman emperor that he was pardoned, and remained in honourable captivity until his death.



BRITISH WAR CHARIOT.

The tin mines of Cornwall were a valuable possession, and in order to secure possession of them the Romans soon extended their rule over the western country. Britain became an important source of supply for the Empire, and exported more grain than any other colony.

^{Britain a rich province} The Romans spared the Britons who made submission, but gave them no part in the government. In



WICKERWORK CORACLES OF EARLY BRITONS.

fact, the Britons were often little better than slaves of their Roman masters. The oppression grew so heavy that in 61 A.D. Boadicea, queen of a tribe called the Iceni, roused the Britons to attack their oppressors, and seventy thousand Romans fell in a few days. Then the Romans took a fearful revenge, and thousands of the Britons were slaughtered. Boadicea took poison rather than submit to capture.

This insurrection of the Britons had been caused by Roman misrule, and in 78 Agricola came to govern the island and restore peace. He knew that a lasting peace must rest on good government, and although he extended the power of Rome by conquering more of the island, yet he ruled justly and kept peace among the many native tribes. He also built a



ROMAN WALLS.

line of forts from the Forth to the Clyde to keep back the fierce Caledonians. At a later period, in 119, the Emperor Hadrian visited Britain, and built a strong wall from the Solway to the Tyne as a further check upon the wild northern tribes. This wall had forts along it at intervals of four miles. Roman soldiers stationed in each fort guarded the walls for a distance of two miles on either side of their station. Parts of the walls are yet in good condition.

4. The Britons under Roman Rule. — The Romans found the Britons a rude and fierce people, dwelling in mud huts thatched with straw, dressing in skins, and living chiefly on fish, the flesh of cows, and milk. The Britons were pagans, and their priests were called Druids. These Druids taught that when a

man died, his spirit went into an animal or into some other man. They held the mistletoe in high veneration, especially if it grew on an oak tree.

Druⁱdism Their god was a terrible monster who drank human blood and who could be appeased only by human sacrifices. Sometimes a huge wicker basket, smeared with oil, was filled with men and women and then set on fire to please this god. Sometimes the Druid would make a sacrifice of a human being and pretend to foretell the future by the appearance of the entrails. The Romans, although as yet themselves pagans, dealt very severely with these Druids and almost exterminated them.

The Romans found the island a vast swamp with great stretches of forest on the higher land. Small clearings were scattered through these forests, where miserable villages were built and where a little grain was cultivated. Tin, slaves, hunting-dogs, and a few dusky pearls were the only exports.

Roman improvements Little by little the Romans changed the appearance of the country. In order to move soldiers easily from place to place two great roads were built across the southern part of the island in the shape of an X. Then other roads connecting these were made. Many swamps were drained, and the cultivation of new grains, vegetables, and fruits was introduced. The great Roman camps became prosperous towns. We can easily recognize the Roman word *castra*, a camp, in

such names as Chester, Doncaster, Lancaster, Worcester, and many others. Near these camps Romans of high rank built beautiful houses after the plan of those in Rome. These villas were built of stone and were often paved with coloured marbles, while the walls were made beautiful by paintings. In connection with every house there were beautiful gardens with fountains, lawns, and fruit trees. Ruins of these houses have recently been explored, and in some cases the floors and walls still show the beautiful colours of two thousand years ago.

But although the poor Britons saw their country change, and learned much that was useful, yet for the most part they were harshly treated. They built the roads, drained the swamps, worked the mines, and supplied the Romans with food. In no case might a Briton become a Roman soldier in Britain, but he might fight for Rome in Asia or in



Britons were
enslaved by
the Romans

Africa, while the Imperial army in Britain contained Moors, Greeks, and Syrians. In this way the Britons were taught to rely for protection solely upon the power of Rome.

5. **Withdrawal of the Romans.** — But the great Roman Empire was beginning to totter. The ruling classes in Rome were getting weaker every year because of their luxurious ways of living. The Roman Empire falls As Rome grew weaker, her many enemies grew stronger, and at last the barbarian races north of the Alps — the Goths, the Vandals, and the Gauls — burst into Italy, sacked Rome, and carried away an immense amount of plunder. Before this actually happened the Roman soldiers were gradually recalled to Rome, and in 410 the Britons were left entirely to themselves.

CHAPTER II

SAXONS AND DANES

SECTION I. THE SAXON CONQUEST

6. **The Coming of the Saxons.** — The Britons, deserted by the soldiers of Rome, and weakened by three and a half centuries of foreign rule, were an easy prey for any warlike enemy. They were brave, but had no able leaders. Ireland was peopled by a race of kindred blood to the Britons, called the Scots. The part of the island now called Scotland was peopled by another kindred race whom the Romans called Picts, probably from the Latin *pictum*, to paint, because they dyed their skins with the juice of plants. Both Picts and Scots were ready to rob and plunder their cousins to the south. The Britons were sorely beset, because in addition to their enemies from Ireland and from the north, they were plundered by foes who landed on the south and east coasts. These foes were chiefly from the country now called Denmark and from northern Germany. They were of three tribes, — Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, — but in time all were called Saxons, and at a later period all were known as English. Their own country around the North Sea was not very fertile, and could not produce food

enough for its hordes of people. Many earned a living by fishing. Others delighted in plundering, and learned much of the island to the west. These Saxons were a fierce and cruel people, with fair skin, blue eyes, and light hair. No storm was too rough to hinder their voyages. They would come in their long boats on dark, stormy nights, run up the mouth of some river, rob, burn, and murder, and then sail away over the sea.



The Britons wrote to Rome, imploring help, saying, "The barbarians drive us out to the sea, and the sea drives us back to the barbarians." But Rome could give no help, and finally one tribe of the Britons decided to allow these Saxons to live on the Island of Thanet

*The Saxons
were fierce
and cruel*

on condition that they would help to fight the Picts and Scots. But the Island of Thanet soon proved too small, and the Saxons drove the Britons from

the south. Other Saxons and yet others came, and the Britons were either killed, enslaved, or driven farther north and west. Finally the whole island from the Highlands of Scotland to the English Channel, except such mountainous parts as Cornwall and Wales, was under the Saxon rule.

First Saxon settlement

It is said that the first Saxon leaders to come to Britain were Hengist and Horsa, who came in 449. Many fierce battles were fought, and it was nearly a hundred years before the Saxons ruled in peace. King Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table belong to this period. Arthur was a British king who, after leading his warriors in many fierce battles, was overcome by the heathen Saxons. Tennyson gives us the story in the *Idylls of the King*.

7. The Saxon Kingdoms. — At first the Anglo-Saxons were divided into many tribes each with its own territory. The South-Saxons lived in Sussex, the West-Saxons in Wessex, the East-Saxons in Essex, and between were the Middle-Saxons in Middlesex. The Jutes settled chiefly in Kent, and the Angles in the east and north. In all there were seven Saxon kingdoms, called the Heptarchy.

They were often forced to unite for self-protection, but they had at no time any formal union, and one Saxon tribe was often engaged in deadly warfare with another. Finally, in 827, Egbert, king of the West-Saxons, subdued the other kingdoms so completely that he was recognised as overlord and king of the English.

SECTION 2. CHRISTIANITY

8. Saxon Paganism and Slavery. — We know that there were Christians among the Romans who lived in Britain, and that these Romans made many Christian converts among the Britons. But these Christians either perished during the Saxon Conquest, or escaped to Ireland, where the Christian religion was protected. The Saxons were pagans who worshipped many gods, of which the chief were the Sun, the Moon, Tiw, Woden, Thor, Frea, and Satern. From these we get the names of the days of the week, Sunday meaning Sun's day; Monday, Moon's day, and so on.

In the early centuries slavery existed in almost every country in Europe. Slaves, often mere children, were publicly sold in Rome. It chanced that an earnest monk named Gregory saw some fair-haired, blue-eyed Saxon boys offered in the slave market, and on asking who they were, was told, "Angles." "Not Angles, but angels," was his reply.

9. Augustine's Mission. — A few years afterwards this monk became Pope Gregory, "The Great." He had not forgotten the beautiful children who had come from the heathen island where the Angles lived, and hoping to win them to a better life, he sent a good and learned monk named Augustine to persuade them to become Christians. One circumstance greatly favoured the mission of Augustine: the king of Kent had married Bertha, a Christian princess from a German country.

Augustine
goes to
Britain,
597

Bertha had brought with her a priest, and the Kentish king had given her a deserted Roman temple for a place of worship. King Ethelbert, although a heathen, was prepared to receive the missionaries kindly and protect them for his wife's sake. Augustine landed in Kent, on the Isle of Thanet, and was welcomed by the queen. The king listened carefully to the Christian doctrines, and accepted them within a year. His example influenced the people, and the new faith spread rapidly. But for a long time many of the Christian converts were half pagan and worshipped their old gods in secret.

10. Christianity firmly established. — The pagan religion of the Saxons glorified war, bloodshed, and cruelty, while its promised rewards were for the brave and faithful in battle. The Christian religion taught humility, self-sacrifice, and brotherly love. The Saxon paganism aroused the fiercest Christianity
changed
the people's
lives passions, but the Roman Christians taught that man's highest work is to control these passions. The monks who came with Augustine were wise men who knew that the people could not change their fierce, cruel natures in a few months. They laboured faithfully and set noble examples of good lives and self-denial. Little by little the whole island was won over to Christianity. Much help was received from the missionaries of Ireland, which had been Christianised long before England.

11. First Monasteries founded. — As soon as a district was Christianised a monastery was founded.

Here young Saxons might learn to read and write. Here patient monks translated the Bible from Latin into English and wrote it on great rolls of parchment.

The value of monasteries Nor were these monks merely missionaries, teachers, and translators; every monastery had its fields, where grains and vegetables of many kinds were grown and where fruits were cultivated. In this way the monks were able to do much good, because every monastery became a centre where men were prepared for a higher life by being taught how best to live this life.

SECTION 3. ALFRED THE GREAT, 871-901

12. The Danes. — King Egbert had just forced the other Saxon kings to own him as their overlord, when an enemy appeared that threatened to ruin every Saxon kingdom. This new enemy came from Norway and Denmark, and consisted of countless hordes of the fiercest, most treacherous, and yet bravest heathens in all Europe. They spoke almost the same tongue as the English, but that made them no more merciful. They cared not whether they robbed German, Gaul, or Saxon. Their very existence depended on plunder, and their only idea of happiness was a life of war. They believed that a man who died in battle went to a happy land where he fought all day, and was cured of his wounds at sunset that he might feast all night. They were fearless on the water, and would descend upon the eastern and north-

ern coasts of England to rob and burn. They took particular pleasure in plundering and burning monasteries, and in slaying the defenceless monks.

The Saxons had almost forgotten how to use ships, and this made it easier for the Danes to escape with their plunder. In 835 they attacked Devonshire, but were defeated by Egbert, who died in 836, leaving the crown to his son, Ethelwulf. In 851 the Danes



DANISH, OR VIKING, BOAT.

took the Isle of Thanet and remained all winter. In the spring more Danes came in 350 vessels, and a terrible battle was fought. The Danes suffered, but thousands came to fill the place of the slain. Ethelwulf died in 857 and left four sons, each of whom held the crown in turn. The ravages of the Danes grew worse, and they began to go far inland. Finally the Saxon king paid them a Danes paid to go away large sum of money to go away; but this only brought more. In 870 a great Danish leader named Ragnar was captured, and the Saxons put him to a horrible

death by throwing him into a pit with poisonous serpents. He met his death bravely, saying that the "cubs of the bear" would avenge him. Sure enough, his sons came. They captured one Saxon prince, and tortured him to death in a most inhuman manner. They then tied Edmund, king of East

Danish
cruelty



THE MARTYRIDOM OF ST. EDMUND BY THE DANES.

Anglia, to a tree and shot him to death with arrows. Because of his heroic death he is called St. Edmund.

13. Alfred chosen King. — Finally, in 871, the third son of Ethelwulf died from wounds received in battle, and Alfred, the fourth and youngest son, became king. The brothers left sons, but they were very young, and the Witan or Parliament chose Alfred because he was

able to lead his people in battle. The prospect was gloomy, because the Danes had gained a foothold in many places, and every year thousands came from over the North Sea. But young Alfred had a spirit of iron, and was determined to bring peace to his people. When very young he had been twice to Rome and had seen much of the world. When a boy he had learned to read, and in those days that was a great accomplishment even for a prince. He had already led his men to victory in battle against the Danes, and almost as soon as he became king he had to fight again.

Alfred was a scholar as well as a soldier

14. The Danes become Christians. — One of the new leaders of the Danes was Guthrum, whom Alfred tried to buy off. Guthrum took the money and made a solemn oath to leave Wessex, but broke the oath. In 877 Guthrum defeated the Saxons at Chippenham. Alfred escaped to a marshy island called Athelney in Somersetshire. Here he spent five months preparing for battle, finding refuge in the hut of a poor cowherd. During his stay here the wife of the herdsman one day left him to watch some cakes while she went about her work. The king, busy with his plans, forgot the cakes and let them burn. The woman came in very angry and scolded him, saying that he was better at eating cakes than at turning them.

In the spring Alfred gathered round him many trusty thanes and prepared for battle. It is said that he even visited Guthrum's camp disguised as a harper. A terrible fight followed, and Guthrum sur-

rendered. Alfred made a treaty with him, by which Guthrum and his chieftains were to be baptised as Christians and were to have the northeast part of England, called the Danelaw, for themselves. They were to give hostages for their good conduct and were to become peaceful farmers.

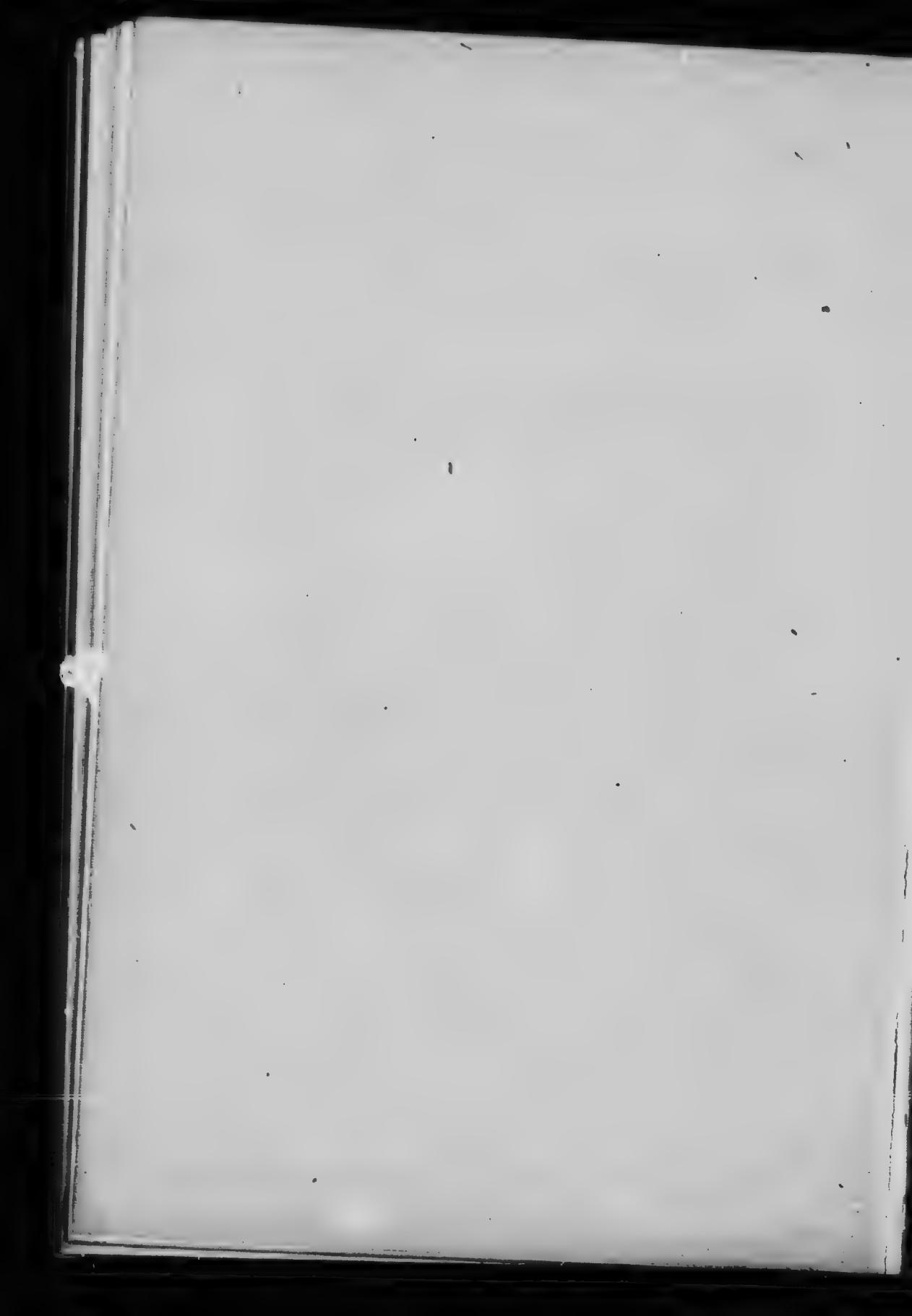


KING ALFRED IN THE COWHERD'S COTTAGE.

Guthrum faithfully kept his promise and was baptised with the name of Athelstane, King Alfred acting as godfather.

15. Reforms of King Alfred. — There now followed fifteen years of peace, and during this time King Alfred made wonderful improvements for his people. He saw that the Danes had won a foothold in England because of their superior skill on the sea. In order to match them there and to guard the shores against sudden attacks, he had a fleet built and stationed at





different points on the coast; to further protect the coast, he had it carefully surveyed and a line of forts built around the south and east. All Saxons able to bear arms were divided into two divisions,—one to keep watch as soldiers under regular leaders, while



GOLD JEWEL OF KING ALFRED FOUND AT ATHELNEY.

the other stayed at home to work, and at the end of a certain time the watchers changed places with the workers. Peace being secured, the king planned year by year to make his people wiser and better. He encouraged scholars to come from Wales, France, Rome, and other countries. Saxon youths were taught

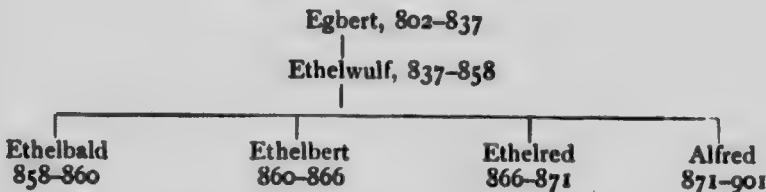
Latin in addition to their own language. Books were translated and schools opened. The king planned to divide the day into hours by burning candles of fixed lengths, and to protect these candles from draughts and make them burn steadily, they were set into a sort of box with sides made of thin plates of horn.

16. Saxon Justice. — The laws were improved and enforced severely but justly. The best of the Saxon laws were collected, and to these were added the Ten Commandments and other Mosaic laws. We read that Alfred hanged one judge for condemning to death a man who had been convicted by nine jurors instead of twelve, and that he hanged another judge who convicted a man when the jury were in doubt. The king held that the man accused should have the full benefit of any doubt. Every crime had its punishment, and generally the punishment was a money payment by the family of the wrong-doer to the family of the man injured. "If a man strike another man's ear off, let him give thirty shillings to boot. If the arm be broken above the elbow, there shall be fifteen shillings to boot. If the thumb be struck off, for that shall be thirty shillings to boot."

17. Alfred's Successors. — Alfred died when only fifty-two, having for many years suffered from a disease that gave him constant pain. He left sons and grandsons who were worthy successors of a great king. Edward ruled from 901 to 924, and after many stubborn fights with the Danes he made many of them acknowledge his rule. A son of Edward,

named Athelstan, completed the work of conquest and forced the Danes to accept him as king. He was therefore the first king really to rule over all England. He even forced the Welsh and Scots to pay him tribute. The fame of his power spread over all Europe, and princes were proud to gain his friendship and to ally themselves to him by marriage.

I. DESCENT OF ALFRED THE GREAT



SECTION 4. THE DANISH CONQUEST

18. Dunstan. — For a long time after this the government was very much in the hands of an able priest named Dunstan, who became Archbishop of Canterbury. In early life he was a monk and lived in a cell five feet long, two and a half feet wide, and four feet high. A story is told that King Edred offered to make Dunstan a bishop, but he refused. The next morning Dunstan told the king that he had seen a vision in which St. Peter struck him for his refusal, and declared to him that he should not refuse even to become Archbishop of Canterbury if the office became vacant. The simple-minded king did not detect the plan of the clever monk, and a few years afterwards Dunstan became Archbishop of Canterbury.

He won the Danes over to accept the rule of the Saxon kings, by allowing them to have their own laws and customs. He also did much to raise the standard of living among the monks and priests. To encourage education he carried on the plans of Alfred the Great and brought scholars from other lands to teach the people. Under his direction a standard system of weights and measures was established. Dunstan was the finest scholar of his age, and was so fond of music that his harp was always near at hand.



A SAXON HOUSE.

19. Ethelred and the Danegeld. — But after a time England was ruled by kings who were unworthy of their descent from the great Alfred, and other Danes from over the seas began to make descents upon the island. Those Danes living in England had now become peaceable Christians and lived much as the Saxons did. But these newcomers were even fiercer than the Danes of old. They would ride far inland on horses, and after slaying and plundering hurry back to the coast.

The Saxons were not united, and of course the

Dunstan a
good ruler

English Danes had much sympathy for their brothers from Denmark. England was now ruled by King Ethelred II, who was nicknamed the Unready or Uncounselled. He never did the right thing at the right time. He bribed the Danes to leave by giving them large sums of money. These sums were raised by a special tax on the people and got the name of Danegeld. Enormous sums of £10,000, £36,000, and even £48,000, were paid at a time, and a hungry horde of Danes was always ready to set out from Denmark as soon as their friends came home with Saxon silver. The miserable Saxons fled to the swamps for safety, and some of the thanes betrayed their country by deserting to the Danes.

Ethelred the Unready now did a cruel and foolish thing. On St. Brice's Day, 1002, he had many of the Danes murdered, and among the slain was Gunhilda, a sister of Swegen, king of Denmark. Swegen swore revenge and entered the Humber with an army. The Danes of the Danelaw submitted to him, and little by little the Saxons gave in. London fought bravely, but could not hold out. Ethelred fled to Normandy, and Swegen was king of England. But within a year Swegen died, and his army chose his son Canute for king. The Saxon Witan declared every Dane an outlaw and sent overseas for Ethelred, who once more became king. He died, however, shortly after landing in England.

The Danes
get rich
harvests in
England

A Danish
king rules
England

20. Edmund Ironside. — Ethelred's son, Edmund Ironside, now became king, and after many brave attempts to win back what his father had lost, he forced Canute to divide the kingdom. But in a few days the valiant Edmund was murdered, probably by Edric, a faithless Saxon noble. A tradition says that when Edric presented himself before Canute, hoping for some reward for his treachery, Canute promised to advance him above all the nobles of England. The next day he kept his promise by hanging him on a very high scaffold.

21. Canute's Rule, 1016-1035. — Canute waded through blood to secure the crown of England, but once he became king his desire was to rule wisely. By sending the greater part of his fierce army back to Denmark he freed the Saxons from fear of further bloodshed. Saxon and Dane received equal justice in the courts, but Canute seemed to prefer the friendship of the Saxons. The Danish king spared no pains to atone for the injuries which his heathen father had done towards the church. Rich gifts and lands were bestowed upon the monks, and many new monasteries were founded. Once as the king was being rowed on the Ouse he heard the monks of Ely singing, and composed the following verse in their honour: —

"Merrily sing the monks of Ely,
As Cnut, the king, comes rowing by.
Row nearer to the land, my men,
That we may hear the good monks sing."

Every great man has flatterers, and no doubt Canute's power and wise rule gave him a goodly number. An old story says that upon one occasion the king read his courtiers a severe lesson. He had his chair of state placed on the sand near the sea, and when the tide was flowing in he commanded it not to wet his robe. But as the tide came steadily on to wash the legs of his chair, the king rebuked his flatterers, saying : " Let every dweller on the earth confess that the power of kings is frivolous and vain. God only is the great Supreme. Let Him only be honoured with the name of Majesty whose nod the heavens, the earth, and the sea obey."

Towards the end of his reign Canute went on a visit to Rome, and while there he sent a letter to his people which shows his Christian spirit. " Be it also known to all that I have vowed to Almighty God to govern my life henceforward by rectitude, to rule my kingdom and people justly and piously, to observe equal judgment everywhere; and if through the intemperance and negligence of my youth I have done what was not just, I will endeavour hereafter, by God's help, entirely to amend it." Canute died in 1035, leaving wild, drunken sons who misruled England during seven years.



KING CANUTE.
Note the costume.

SECTION 5. SAXON RULE RESTORED

22. Edward the Confessor, 1042-1066. — On the death of Hardicanute, the son of Canute, the Witan gave the crown to Edward, who was a son of Ethelred the Unready and Emma, whose second husband was King Canute. Though born of an English father, Edward had lived all his life in Normandy. It is even doubtful if he could speak the Saxon tongue. He was a well-meaning man, but almost as weak as his father. Prayer and church-building occupied much of his time. In fact, he was better suited to become a monk than to be the king of a people so rude and hard to govern as the English of that age.

23. The Godwins. — Edward brought with him to England many Normans to whom he gave rich gifts and important offices. This angered the English, who were much under the influence of Earl Godwin, Norman influence a Saxon peasant who had been raised to high estate by King Canute. Earl Godwin gained further power when he married his daughter Edith to the king. He and his sons were the most powerful family in England, but they were all outlawed and banished because of a quarrel with the king over Norman favourites. After this the Normans obtained more favours than ever. Indeed, William, Duke of Normandy, came over to visit Edward, and secured from him a promise of the crown of England. So strong was the feeling against the

foreigners that Earl Godwin and his sons returned. They were well received, and forced the Normans to leave the country. Godwin died soon after, but his son Harold succeeded to the crown at Edward's death.

CHAPTER III

THE NORMANS, 1066-1154

SECTION I. THE NORMAN CONQUEST

24. The Normans' Home in France. — A little more than six hundred years had now passed since the first Northmen had come to settle in England. First



A NORMAN SHIP.

came Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, and then the fierce Danes. We have now to learn how yet another tribe of these same people came to form part of the English race.

Shortly after the death of Alfred the Great, a bold sea-rover from Norway, named Rollo, succeeded in winning from the French king a strip of land around

the mouth of the Seine River. Here he settled with thousands of his hardy Vikings, who were of the same blood as the Saxons and Danes. Because their old home was Norway, these people called their new home Normandy and themselves Normans. Rollo married a French princess and was baptised as a Christian. The French at this time were much more civilised than these sturdy pirates who had seized the Seine country. They had good schools, fine churches, and many strong castles. But the Normans were quick to yield to the softening influences of French civilisation, and within a hundred years they became Frenchmen and spoke the French language.

The old home
of the Nor-
mans was in
Norway

25. William of Normandy.—William, Duke of Normandy, was a descendant of Rollo. He had a promise from the Confessor of the crown of England. More than that, Harold had been shipwrecked on the coast of Normandy, and to secure his life and liberty, had solemnly sworn, with his hand on the relics of some Norman saint, that he would support the Duke's claim to the English throne. Of course William had no real claim, since the crown of England was the gift of the Witan, and they chose Harold. The Saxon bishops also influenced Harold to accept the crown by telling him that a forced oath was not binding. He was made to feel that if he kept his oath he would be a traitor to England.

Duke
William's
claim to
England

But Duke William was dreadfully angry when he

heard that Harold had been crowned, and having secured the Pope's consent to dethrone the man who was false to his oath, he made ready to invade England.

26. Battle of Stamford Bridge, 1066. — King Harold heard of William's plans, and did his best to get ^{Harold had many enemies} an army ready. But England was also threatened with an invasion from Harold's own brother, Tostig, who had been outlawed and who was now returning to England in company with Harold Hardrada, king of Norway. Tostig and Hardrada landed in Yorkshire and laid waste the country. Harold hastened to meet them, and a battle was fought on the river Derwent, at Stamford Bridge. Both Tostig and Hardrada were slain, and while Harold was feasting at York in honour of the victory, he received news that Duke William had landed in the South.

27. Battle of Hastings, 1066. — The English might easily have driven Duke William out had they been united. But the men of the North had no thought ^{The English were not united} of going with Harold to defend the South. So Harold had to get together a new army as he marched to London. This army was formed mostly of peasants, who fought with battle-axes. Duke William's horsemen fought with spears, while his foot-soldiers were expert bowmen. He himself had a bow so strong that no other man could bend it. Harold took up a strong position at Senlac, where Battle Abbey was afterwards built.

His men were posted on the face of a hill with a marsh on their right, while their front was protected by a stockade.

Duke William was forced to attack. Again and again the Normans threw themselves on the English centre, but were beaten back. Norman foot and Norman horse were cut down by English battle-axes. Duke William grew desperate. He pushed his way up to the stockade, and with his own hand slew two of Harold's brothers, Gurth and Leofwin. The cry arose that the Duke

*Norman skill
triumphs
over Saxon
valour*



THE DEATH OF HAROLD.

was killed. He took off his helmet and rode along the lines to bring back courage to his men. Finally the Normans made a feint of retreating. Many of the English pursued. Then the Norman horsemen turned and cut them off. But yet there were thousands stoutly defending King Harold. The Norman archers now began to shoot their arrows high in the air, to fall upon the English who were behind the breast-

work of stakes. Many of the English were killed in this way, and finally King Harold fell, pierced in the eye with an arrow. All was over, and Duke William pitched his tent on the field of battle, to feast and carouse among the dead.



EDITH SEARCHING FOR THE BODY OF HAROLD.

In a cathedral at Bayeux is a roll of tapestry seventy yards long, with pictures illustrating the Norman conquest of England. The tapestry is still very beautiful and all the pictures may readily be understood. Perhaps the figures were worked by Matilda, the Conqueror's wife, and the ladies of her court.

Bayeux
Tapestry

SECTION 2. WILLIAM I, 1066-1087

28. Saxons bow to Norman Rule. — The victory at Hastings gave the Norman Duke control of the south of England, but did not give him the crown. He was soon able to arrange his forces in such a way that London was cut off from the north, and therefore at his mercy. The English Witan or Parliament at first offered the crown to Edgar Ætheling, a grandson of Edmund Ironside. Edgar was a mere lad, and the Witan soon felt that a struggle against the victorious Norman was hopeless. Two months after the battle on the Hill of Senlac, the crown was offered to William. He accepted it as a lawfully chosen king, and after a solemn religious service in Westminster Abbey was crowned on Christmas Day. It was an old Saxon custom that when the crown was placed upon the king's head the people should raise a shout as a sign of their willingness to submit to his rule. The English shout so startled the Norman soldiers around the Abbey that the coronation ceremony ended in riot and bloodshed.



WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

From his great seal.

29. The Feudal System.—When Duke William was preparing to invade England, he promised to reward his followers with English lands. In giving them these promised lands he introduced into England what is known as the Feudal System, which was a method of holding land already quite common on the continent. According to this system all land belonged to the king, and such of his territory as he did not wish for his own use he granted to barons or lords. These barons granted smaller portions to knights, who had under them villeins or serfs who tilled the soil. In return for his lands the baron promised, when called upon, to bring a certain number of knights to fight for the king and also to make certain money payments. The baron granted his lands to knights on much the same terms, and while the baron became the king's vassal, the knight in turn became a vassal to the baron.

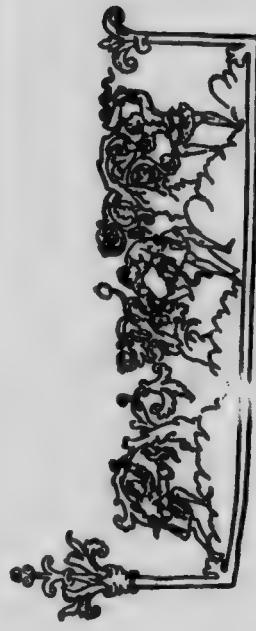
Paying homage When a baron received a grant of land he had to kneel before the king bareheaded, and place his hands in those of his sovereign. He then took a solemn oath to be a true and faithful subject. "I will be your man with life and limb, and I will keep my faith and loyalty to you for life and death." This ceremony was called paying homage, and was required by the king from every baron, and by each baron from his knights. In order that the barons' vassals might not feel more strongly bound to their immediate lords than to their sov-



January—Harvesting and sowing.



March—Sowing and digging.



February—Plowing.



April—Feasting.



May—Shearing.

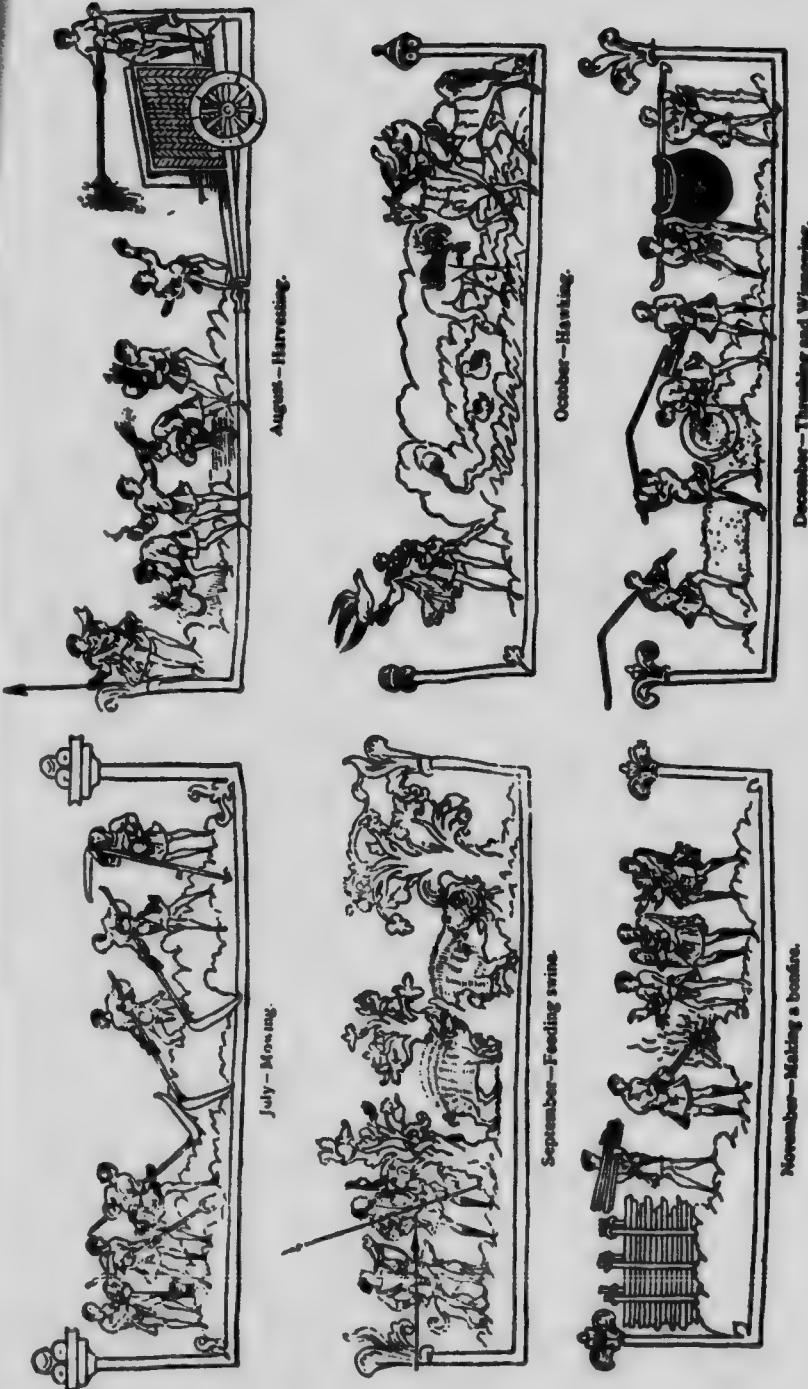


June—Cutting wood.

RURAL LIFE IN ENGLAND AT TIME OF NORMAN CONQUEST.

ereign, they were compelled to take an oath of allegiance to the king. They were first sworn to be loyal to the king, and next to him they must obey the lords upon whose estates they lived. Besides service in war, a baron owed the king money upon ^{A baron's} _{duties} certain particular occasions:—(1) to redeem the king from bondage if he were captured in war; (2) to bear the expense of making the king's eldest son a knight; (3) to provide a marriage portion for the king's eldest daughter, and (4) to pay a special tax when he first obtained his lands, if he inherited them by the laws of descent. If the baron died leaving young children, the king was their guardian, and until they became of age he could claim all the profits from the estate. The baron's orphan daughter could marry only with the king's consent, and he usually gave her hand to the suitor who could repay the favour with a handsome gift.

Norman William immediately gave to his followers the vast estates of those English nobles who had fought at Hastings. In this way, almost the whole of the South passed from English to Norman ownership. Thousands of Normans of low degree were thus given power to oppress the English. Some of William's chief nobles were granted three or four hundred farms each. With the Feudal System began the building of those strong castles of which many ruins are yet found in England. These castles were the strongholds of the barons, and enabled their owners to rule the surrounding country very harshly.



RURAL LIFE IN ENGLAND AT TIME OF NORMAN CONQUEST.

Every castle had a strong keep or tower, with walls several feet thick. Then there was a great hall where the family lived. Under the keep were dungeons, where no light ever shone, and where the baron might starve or torture his prisoner as he saw fit. Around the castle was a strong wall with a barred gate, and outside the wall a deep moat with a drawbridge opposite the gate.

30. William's Government. — The Conqueror tried to be just. His rule was severe, but he did his best to keep order and to bring the whole country under one law. Early in his reign the people of the North rebelled, and the wrath of the king was terrible. He laid waste the whole north district, by burning houses and destroying every means of living. Three other things the Conqueror did that made the English hate him, but two of these were for the good of the land.

Every night at eight o'clock a bell rang, which was a signal to put out lights and fires. The bell said "cover fire," which is in French *couver feu*, and from this we get *curfew*. As the houses were for the most part of wood, it was a wise law, because it prevented fires, but the people thought it a Norman tyranny.

No man ever loved to hunt better than the king. Men said he loved the tall deer as though they were his brothers. Perhaps it was true. This great, silent man, who could be so fierce and cruel when he chose, had few friends, and

seemed happiest when alone in the silent woods with the beautiful deer and the stately trees. He laid waste the country for miles, to make a great hunting-ground. About ninety thousand acres were set aside for this park, and several villages and churches were destroyed. Severe laws were made to punish any man who shot Only the king and his nobles might shoot deer

Only the king and his nobles might shoot deer

xxvii TERRA Willi de Brabant. In Lumbek.
 Willi de Brabant ten de pooy. Successor breviers
 tenue de pooy. E. Té le desf. ap. i. bid. mode p. una hida.
 fr. ē m. car. In dno. ē una. 7 v. willi. Vns. bord. c. m.
 cor. lbi molin de xxiij. folij. 7 pescaria de l. denar.
 Valores. m. lbi. modo. c. folij.
 xxviii TERRA Willeran Louys In Lumbek.
 Willo louys en de regodecste. Ten annus dorge. t.
 m. alto. Té le desf. vni. bid. modo ap. i. hida. una
 fr. ē v. car. In bmo dno. car. 7 v. willi. 7 m. bord. c. m.
 car. lbi. 11. folij. 7 molin de xxi. folij. 7 v. lbi. 7 p. pa.
 Selus de. v. porc. Valores vni. lbi. 7 pesc. c. fol. mod. jec. lbi.
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 7 ann. c. pa. Selus de. lumbek. Valores vni. lbi. modo. 7 p. folij.
 Jct. W. m. desf. Ten annus. Selus de. lumbek.
 de pooy. E. Té. p. v. bid. c. m. bid. 7 dno. 7 p. folij.
 11. car. In dno. ē una. 7 v. willi. 7 m. cor. c. l. car.
 7 dno. lbi. molin de xxi. folij. 7 v. lbi. 7 p. folij.
 Valores. v. lbi. 7 valors. gari. rott. v. lbi.

FRAGMENT OF THE DOOMSDAY BOOK

a deer in the New Forest. For such an offence a man might be hanged, or, yet worse, he might have his eyes put out. Two of William's sons were shot in this forest, and the people afterwards said it was a punishment sent from heaven because of the cruel laws about the deer.

William had a book kept which was called the "Doomsday Book," and which contained a record

showing full particulars about all the land of England. The owner's name, the number of roods in his ^{Doomsday} lot, how much forest it contained, how much ^{Book} cultivated land, and how much bog or fen, — all were carefully set down. "There was not," they said, "a single rood of land, nor was there an ox, nor a cow, nor a hive of bees, nor a pig, passed by." This record was made in 1086, and it enabled the king to levy on each man a just tax. The book was given its name because its decisions were as fixed as those of the Day of Doom or Judgment.

SECTION 3. WILLIAM II, CALLED RUFUS, 1087-1100

31. Norman Tyranny. — In 1087 the Conqueror engaged in a war with Philip of France. While burning a French town, his horse threw him violently against the pommel of the saddle, and he died in a few days. He left three sons: Robert, who became Duke of Normandy; Henry, who was granted a large sum of money; and William, called Rufus, or the Red, who secured the crown of England.

The Norman barons would have preferred to have Robert for king of England, because they knew he ^{English} ^{forced to support Rufus} was weak and unable to rule. So when William was crowned, the barons broke out in rebellion. The English dreaded the lawless barons, and rallied around the Red King. But no sooner had Rufus punished the barons, than he began to oppress the people by imposing heavy

taxes upon them. Even the church was robbed. The Conqueror had been severe, but he kept good order. His son misruled the people and wasted their money on his selfish pleasures and vices.

One day, in the year 1100, the king's body was found in the New Forest, pierced by an arrow. Perhaps he was shot by an enemy. The people shed no tears over him, and his body was buried like that of a dog. No bell tolled, no prayer was offered, no text was read; not even a name was put over his grave.

32. The Crusades. — For hundreds of years it had been a custom among the Christians of Europe to make journeys to Jerusalem, which they called the Holy City because it had been the scene of Christ's sufferings and death. This journey was supposed to go far towards securing a pardon for sins. Those who made the journey were known as pilgrims and spoke of their travels as a pilgrimage. No doubt the strange sights to be seen in foreign lands and the adventures along the way had something to do with the desire of many for such a pilgrimage.

Jerusalem was no longer a Christian city. The Arabs ruled the Holy Land, and they looked to Mahomet instead of to Christ. But the Arabs kind to Christians Christian pilgrims to the Holy City were kindly treated because they spent money which went into the pockets of the Arabs. About the time of the Norman conquest of England the fierce Turks from around the Caspian Sea took Jerusalem from the

Arabs. These Turks, like the Arabs, were Mahometans, but they ill-treated Christian pilgrims, robbed them, tortured them, and sometimes murdered them. Horrible tales of their cruelties were told by Christians who came back to England, France, Italy, and other countries of Europe.



PETER THE HERMIT PREACHING THE CRUSADE.

Among other Christian pilgrims who witnessed the Turks' cruelty was Peter, the Hermit of Picardy. He visited the Pope, Urban II, and these two planned a great meeting to stir up the Christians of Europe to wrest Jerusalem from the infidels. Peter the Hermit gave eloquent descriptions of the pilgrims' sufferings, and thousands were ready to set out on a holy war; men,

Peter the
Hermit

women, and children, priests and soldiers, honest men and rogues,—every class was ready, either from motives of real piety or from love of adventure. Poor peasants even shod their oxen like horses and started with wives and children in carts. Many set off without money or food and with scanty clothing. Every pilgrim wore a cross on his arm or shoulder as a symbol of the Saviour's death. The Latin word for *cross* is *crux*, and thus arose the names *crusade* and *crusader*. Robert of Normandy joined Peter the Hermit and pawned his kingdom to his brother William II to get the necessary money to equip his followers for this First Crusade. A poor man might set out without any money, but a prince must have horses and servants, besides rich gifts to buy the good-will of kings along the route. About thirty thousand people, chiefly from England, France, Italy, and Germany, formed the van of the First Crusade. After many difficulties and some fighting they reached Constantinople, where they were joined by a great army of well-equipped soldiers under Godfrey of Bouillon. The whole expedition now numbered hundreds of thousands, some say a million.

This vast horde journeyed south through Asia Minor, fighting and plundering along the road. The country through which they passed was swept bare of everything that could feed man or beast. Finally, in 1099, the Holy City was reached. After a desperate fight its walls were torn open, and the city entered. The first thing that the Christians did was to

butcher in cold blood thousands of the helpless Turks; ten thousand were slaughtered in the mosque of Omar alone. After this awful butchery the Christians fell upon their knees and offered up fervent prayers of thanksgiving for their victory. Jerusalem was now governed by Christian princes, but in less than a hundred years the Turks won it back, and other Crusades were planned to retake it.

Besides uniting the Christians of Europe in a common cause, the Crusades opened up commerce with Asia. People travelled more and had more accurate knowledge of the manners and customs of other people.

SECTION 4. HENRY I, BEAUCLERC, 1100-1135

33. Saxon and Norman unite. — William II died without children, and Henry, the Conqueror's youngest son, called *beaucherc* or *fine scholar*, because he could write, was given the crown. The barons were still longing for a ruler like Robert, who would let them do as they pleased, but Robert was not yet home from the Crusade. So Henry, the only son of the Conqueror born in England, and the only one who could speak English, obtained the support of the people and brought the barons to order. He also pleased the English people very much by marrying Matilda of Scotland. This princess was a daughter of Margaret, the sister of Edgar the *Ætheling*, and the people were pleased

that one of Saxon blood should again share the throne.

34. Charter of Henry I. — Henry gave the people a charter in which he made promises of good government. The laws of Edward the Confessor were to be restored and unjust fines and taxes upon either laymen or priests were to cease. ^{Henry's Promises} This charter was often violated, but it served to remind the people of their rights, and we shall see that it served as the model for one which the people forced upon Henry's great-grandson.

35. Exchequer and Circuit Courts. — King Henry by no means allowed his people to go free from taxes, but he levied them regularly and by a fixed system. All fines upon his vassals, all aids and reliefs from tenants, as well as the Danegeld ^{Exchequer Court} and some other taxes, were brought twice a year and paid to the king's justiciar, who received the money on a table laid off into squares like a chess-board. For this reason the court was named the Exchequer Court. Certain officers from the court went through the kingdom at stated periods to adjust matters in dispute between the king and his subjects. From this we can trace the Circuit Courts which are so fixed a part of our ideas of British justice.

36. The White Ship. — Henry's only son William was drowned in the White Ship while crossing from Normandy to England. The ship put off at midnight with a gay company on board, among whom

were Prince William and his sister. The sailors were drunk and ran the ship on a rock. She sank almost immediately, and all were drowned except a poor butcher of Rouen, who lived to tell the story of the wreck. It is said that Henry never smiled after hearing of his son's death.



FEMALE COSTUME, TIME OF
HENRY I.

ons swore a solemn oath to support her, but they did it unwillingly, because it seemed strange to have a sovereign who could not lead them in war.

SECTION 5. STEPHEN, 1135-1154

37. The Rival Cousins. — Although Henry I had taken such pains to secure the crown for his daughter, she never was really the ruler of England. There was living at the court of Henry I his nephew, Stephen, Earl of Blois. He was a handsome and very popular young man. The common people loved him because he would joke with them in a

friendly spirit. On his uncle's death Stephen was hailed as king by the people of London. Many barons forgot their oath to the dead king and swore fealty to his gallant nephew. Stephen promised good government and many privileges but unfortunately he was too good-natured to rule with a firm hand, and the selfish barons soon began to do as they liked.

David, king of Scotland, invaded England in 1138 to aid his niece

Battle of the Standard Matilda. A terrible bat-

tle was fought at Northallerton in Yorkshire, where the Scots were defeated. The English were led by Archbishop Thurston, and because he had four sacred banners raised on a mast which was fixed to a rude car, the English called the fight the Battle of the Standard. In 1139 the west of England declared its loyalty to Ma-



THE STANDARD.

tilda, and a disastrous civil war broke out. Stephen was captured, and his cousin ruled for a time. But she was as much too strict and haughty as Stephen was too lenient and affable, and when he escaped from prison, Matilda had to flee.

38. Anarchy in England. — Then followed many years of misrule and misery. The barons built hundreds of castles and fortified them. These became homes of robbers who pillaged The Barons' War the country and ill-treated the people. The "Saxon

Chronicle," which stops with this reign, says: "Every rich man built castles and defended them against all, and they filled the land with castles. They greatly oppressed the wretched people by making them work at these castles, and when the castles were finished, they filled them with devils and evil men. Then they took those whom they suspected to have any goods, by night and by day, seizing both men and women, and put them in prison for their gold and silver, and tortured them with pains unspeakable, for never were any martyrs tormented as these were. They hung some up by their feet and smoked them with foul smoke; some by their thumbs or by the head, and then hung coats of mail on their feet. They twisted a knotted string about their heads until it went into the brain; they put them into dungeons wherein were adders and snakes and toads and thus wore them out. They plundered and burned towns. Then was corn dear and flesh and cheese, for there was none in the land. They spared neither church nor churchyard, nor the lands of abbots or priests. It was said openly that Christ and his saints slept."

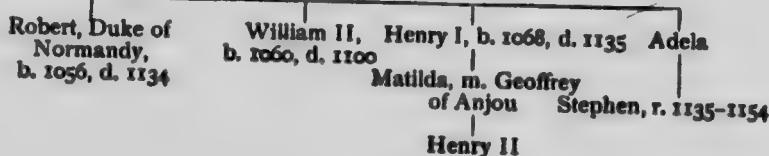
After nearly twenty years of this disorder, Stephen agreed that at his death, Matilda's son, Henry of

Anjou, should become king. The barons
Treaty of
Wallingford,
1153 were to be forced to pull down the castles built to shelter thieves. Estates seized in war were to be restored to their lawful owners. All hired soldiers were to be dismissed. Thieves and robbers were to be hanged. The courts were to

be again opened and justice rendered to every man. Perhaps Stephen agreed to this with less regret, as his own son had just died.

II. NORMAN KINGS

William I, b. 1027, d. 1087



CHAPTER IV

HOUSE OF ANJOU, 1154-1399

SECTION I. HENRY II, 1154-1189

39. Power and Territory of Henry II. — The reforms promised by the treaty of Wallingford were scarcely begun when Stephen died and young Henry was called upon to rule. It would have been very hard to find a prince better fitted to bring an unruly people into order. He was young, brave, and determined. His body was like iron, and could bear any amount of fatigue. It was a common saying that the king never sat down except to eat or when on horseback. He even read books and talked with his friends during mass. His dominion stretched ^{Dominions of} from Scotland on the north to the Pyrenees on the south. He ruled more provinces south of the Channel than were governed by the king of France. From his mother he inherited Normandy and Maine; from his father, Anjou and Touraine; and with his wife, Eleanor, formerly the wife of the king of France, he obtained seven provinces south of the Loire.

40. The Barons brought to Order. — The hired soldiers were driven out of the country. The barons

were forced to pull down more than a thousand castles that had been erected without license. Judges were again sent on circuit. Justice was dealt out to Saxon and Norman alike, and the two peoples began to grow together. It was no longer a disgrace to be of English blood.

41. Coinage. — During the Norman period many barons had been given the right to coin money. They used so much base metal that the coins often had little real value. Henry gave orders that no coins were to be made except at the royal mint.

42. Scutage. — Under the Feudal System the great barons could be forced to serve in war only forty days in the year. Henry wished to carry on a war against France and might need an army for several months. He therefore allowed the barons to give a money payment in place of military service. This tax came to be called *scutage*, or shield money, from the Latin *scutum*, a shield. With this money the king could hire troops who were ready to fight at all times. In this way the power of the king was increased, while that of the barons grew less, since they were no longer obliged to keep large armies ready for battle.

43. Trial by Jury. — Henry required each county to choose twelve men, who were to present charges against wrong-doers before the circuit judges. These twelve men were sworn to act justly, and hence were called jurors, from Latin *jurare*, to swear. In time the jurors ceased to act as witnesses, and became, as

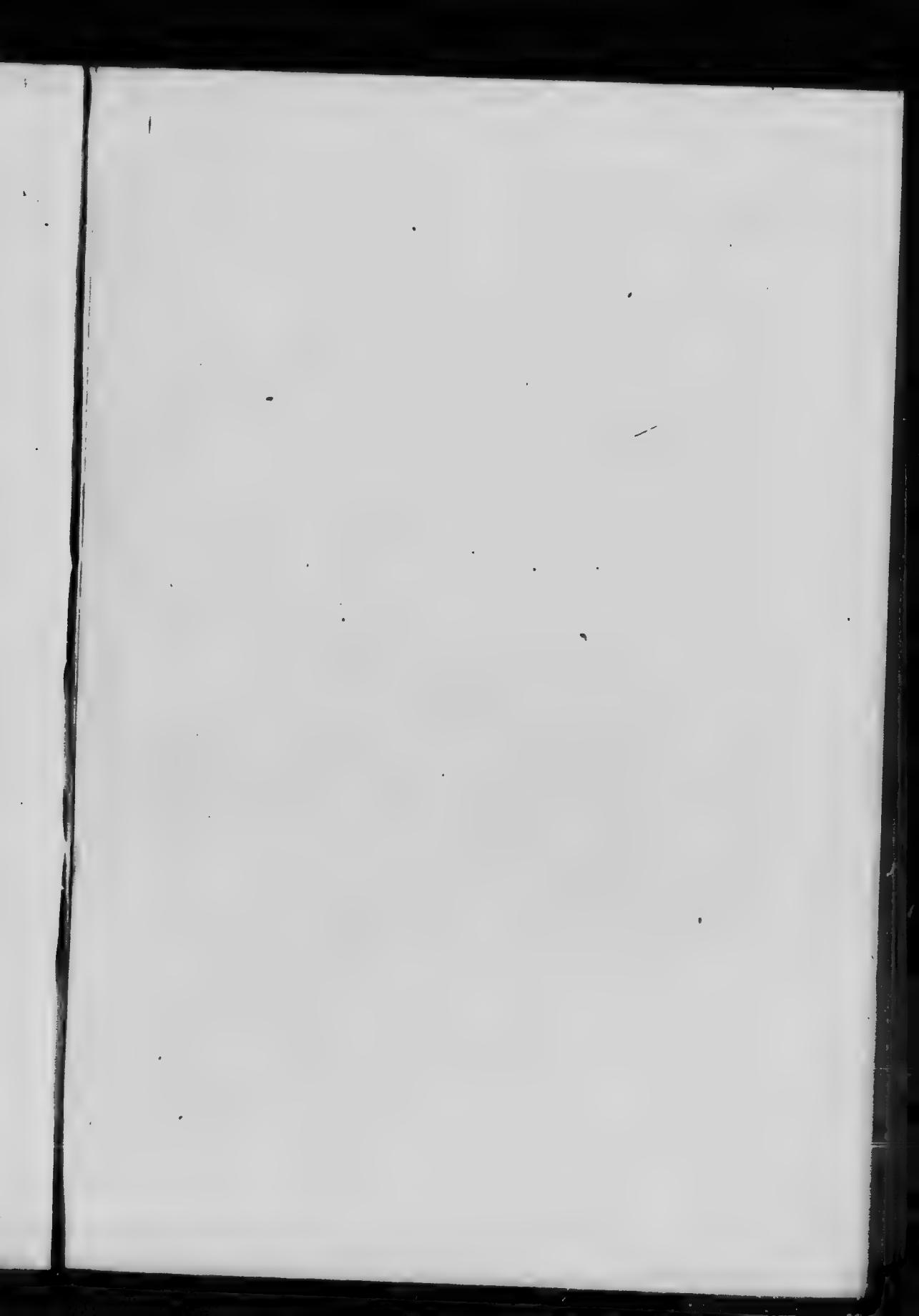
now, judges of guilt or innocence. The finding of a jury was called a *verdict*, from two Latin words, *ver*, true, and *dico*, to speak.

44. Thomas à Becket. — Henry's closest friend was Thomas à Becket. In those days every man who



THOMAS À BECKET.
From his seal.

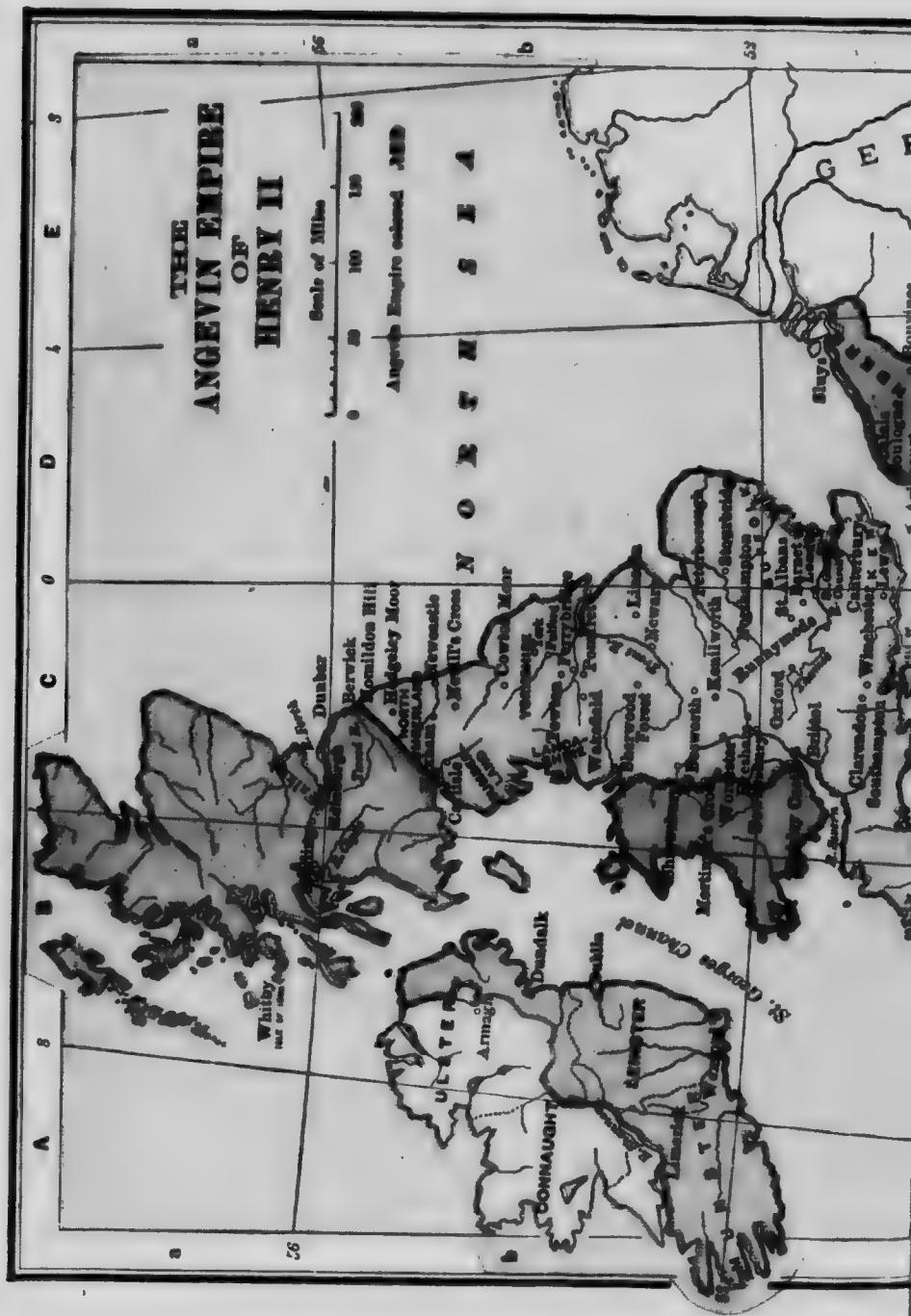
had any book-learning belonged to some order of priests or monks. Becket was highly educated, and while a priest in name he lived in a very magnificent style. He became the king's chancellor, and stood next to the king himself in power. His army of servants and retainers numbered nearly a thousand, of whom two hundred were knights. When he went on a journey, the brilliance of his retinue equalled that of the king. His table was set with vessels of gold and silver, and loaded with most costly and dainty viands. On one occasion he paid a sum equal to £75 for a dish of eels of fine quality. Yet Becket himself lived on plain food. His splendour was simply for the sake of show, and because of his rank as king's chancellor. His servants had orders to strew the floor of his dining-room with clean straw every morning in winter, and with fresh bulrushes and evergreens every day in summer. Men of the highest rank came to dine with Becket, and when the benches at the table were filled, they sat on the floor on the clean rushes.



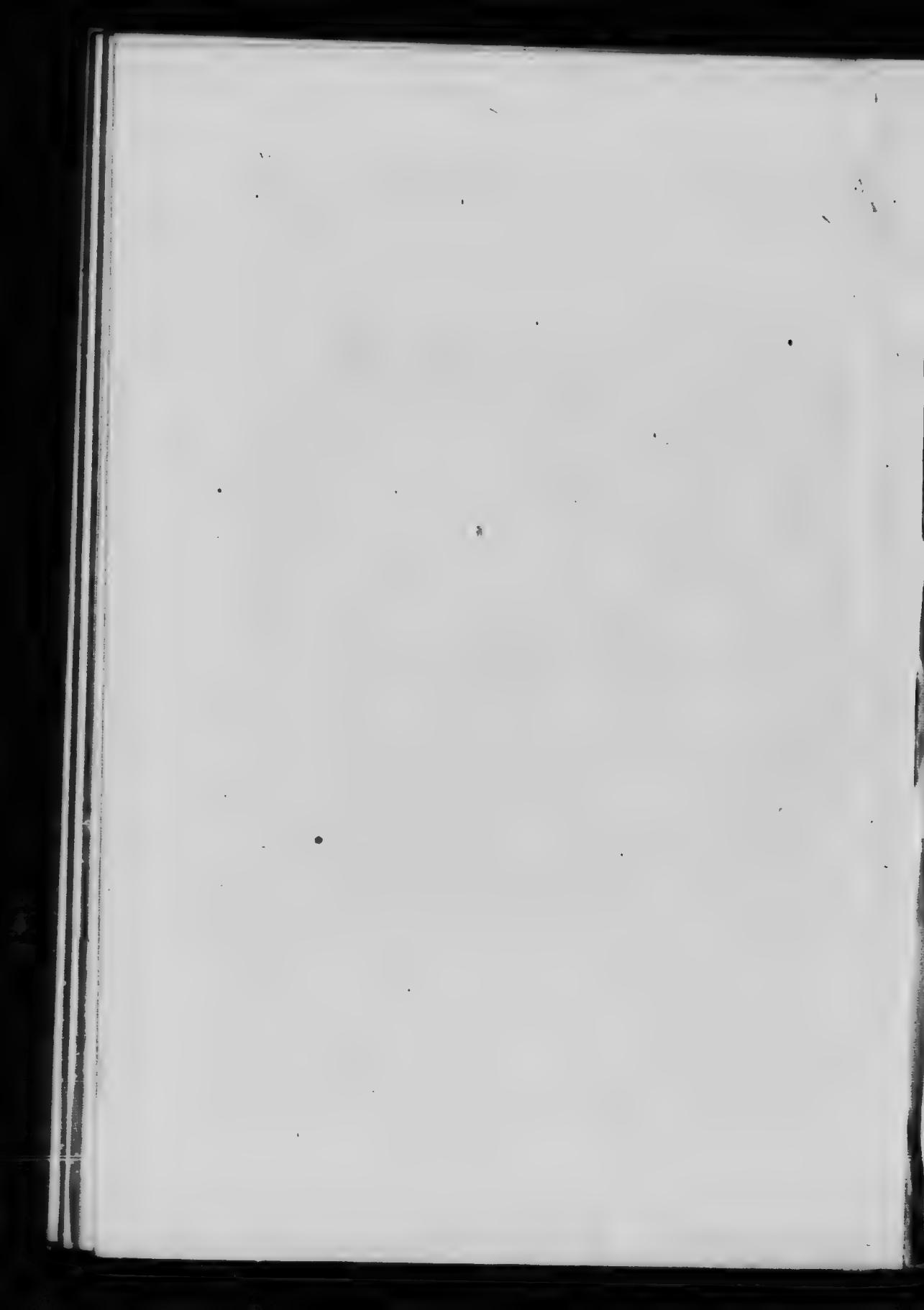
THE
ANGEVIN EMPIRE
OF
HENRY II

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In 1162 Henry made Becket Archbishop of Canterbury, and almost immediately a great change took place in his manner of life. He now lived plainly and avoided gay company. He even wore a camel's hair shirt to make himself uncomfortable. Every morning he washed the feet of thirteen beggars and gave them alms. All this was to show his humility, because a style of living quite suitable for the king's chancellor would have ill suited an archbishop.

At this time the courts of the clergy claimed the right to try priests for all wrong-doing. The usual punishment was loss of office. Thus it came about that a man might commit a serious crime, and if he were a priest, his punishment would be light. It must not be forgotten, however, that many men who were accused of crimes and who claimed to be classed with the clergy were not really priests at all; in those days any man who could read could claim the protection of the church and all the privileges of its priesthood before the law. It is said that during the first nine years of Henry's reign there were one hundred murders committed by priests who were still living upon the bounty of the church. But it should be kept in mind that during the stormy Norman rule the church had granted protection to hundreds of innocent people, and saved them from death at the hands of their enemies. Henry was anxious to change the law and to have every man who was charged with a crime tried in the king's courts. Becket was very jealous to preserve the rights of the

church and refused to agree to Henry's plan. Then a bitter quarrel began. Finally Becket gave an unwilling consent to the changes. But very soon he raised new objections, and to save himself from Henry's wrath he fled to France.

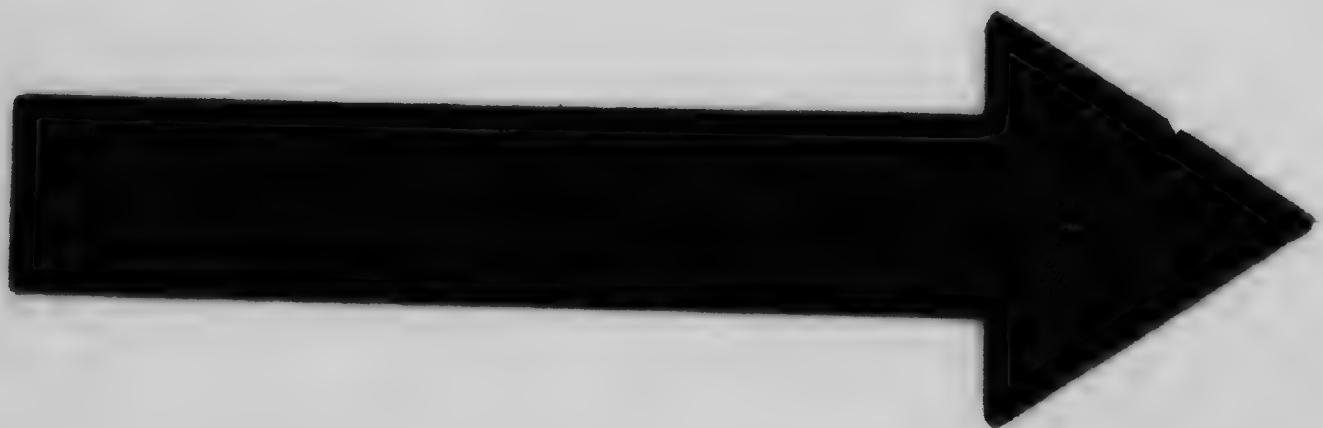
After some years Becket and Henry met and made a sort of peace, and Becket crossed over to England. But his manner was still haughty and unyielding, and when Henry, who was in Normandy, heard of his conduct, he exclaimed in sudden passion, "Will no one rid me of this turbulent priest?" Four

Murder of Becket Norman knights crossed over to England and murdered the archbishop in his own cathedral. Henry had spoken in anger, and did not really desire such a foul deed to be done. When he went back to England, he saw that his people looked coldly upon him, and regarded the murdered Becket as a saint. So Henry put on a rough woollen shirt and a coarse cloak. He then walked barefooted over the sharp stones of the streets to Becket's tomb in the cathedral. Here he prayed and then offered his back to the whips of some eighty monks who each gave his kingly shoulders a blow. A king could do no more. The people forgave him and the Pope pardoned him.

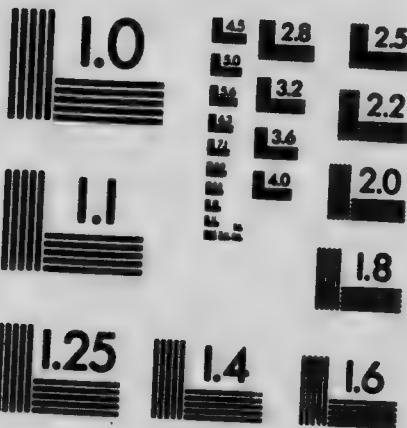
45. Ireland. — In the early centuries of the Christian era Ireland was more civilised than England, and sent missionaries to the surrounding countries. Her monasteries were famous for the learning of the monks and for their beautiful coloured manuscripts.

The Roman conquest of Gaul had made a united France. The Norman conquest of England had created a nation by striking a death-blow to the old Saxon earldoms. But Ireland had not got beyond the stage of tribal government. Danes and Welshmen had landed in Ireland and made settlements on the coast, but these were small, and at the time of Henry II the whole island was torn with domestic strife.

Henry was anxious to add Ireland to his possessions. An opportunity soon offered itself. Some time afterwards Dermot, the Irish king of Leinster, Civil strife in Ireland was driven from his kingdom, and came over to ask help from Henry. Strongbow, an English noble, returned with Dermot, and together they won many victories over the Irish clans. After one bloody victory, Dermot seized the head of a dead enemy and bit off the nose and lips in triumph. When Dermot died, Strongbow, who had married his daughter, succeeded to his power. Henry now grew jealous of Strongbow and in 1172 went over to Ireland himself. Strongbow paid homage to Henry, and many other Irish rulers submitted. Indeed, Henry might have conquered the whole island, had he not been called home by rebellions which were aided by his sons and his queen, Eleanor. Prince John, who during his father's life had no lands to rule and was therefore called Lackland, went over to Ireland. But he An insolent prince mocked the native chiefs who came to dine with him, and even pulled their bushy beards. Such a



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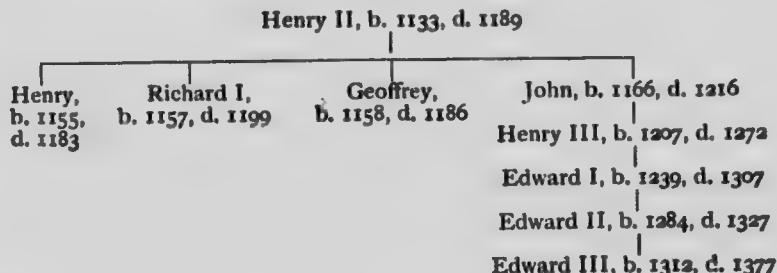


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prince had no power to draw Irish and English together, and very soon John was forced to leave. For many years after this the native Irish were at constant war among themselves, and with the small English settlements along the coast which were known as "the Pale."

III. ANGEVIN OR PLANTAGENET KINGS FROM HENRY II TO
EDWARD III



SECTION 2. RICHARD CŒUR DE LION, 1189-1199

46. Richard's Character. — The last years of Henry II were saddened by his rebellious sons. Two of these sons, Henry, the eldest, and Geoffrey, died before their father, leaving the second son, Richard, to take the crown of England.

Richard, called the Lion-hearted because of his bravery, was an English king in name only, because during his rule of ten years he spent less than ten months in England. It is even doubtful if he could speak the English language. His fame rests entirely upon his personal bravery and his adventures in the Holy Land, during the Third Crusade. England

was for him only a place whence he might raise money to support his soldiers. To get money for the Crusade he sold offices and titles; he robbed and murdered Jews; he sold charters to towns; he pawned the crown jewels; he said he would sell London if he could find a buyer. And yet many of his people admired him because he was brave and fearless. He had great strength and loved to show it in feats of arms.

47. The Third Crusade. — In company with Philip of France and Leopold of Austria, Richard set out for Palestine, which had now fallen once more under the rule of the Turk. The Christian kings quarrelled about leadership, and wasted their time and money. They gained some battles, but Saladin, the brave leader of the infidels, grew stronger every day. On one occasion Richard asked Leopold to assist with a fort. Leopold said he was neither a mason nor a carpenter. This made Richard so angry that he kicked the Duke of Austria, who went home in a rage. Philip of France also went home because he was jealous of Richard. At one time Richard was near enough to Jerusalem to see its spires, but he refused to look, saying if his arm was not strong enough to conquer it, his eyes should never behold it.

48. Richard a Prisoner. — On his way home Richard was wrecked on the Adriatic Sea, and attempted to cross Europe in disguise. ^{Richard in prison} He was detected, perhaps because he wore a costly ring while in the dress of a peasant. At any rate,

Leopold of Austria took him prisoner and handed him over to the emperor of Germany. Two men were anxious that Richard should remain a prisoner in Germany: Philip of France, because he wished to gain possession of Richard's French provinces, and Prince John, because he had usurped Richard's place in England. John secretly offered to pay £20,000 a month during the time that his brother was held £100,000 for a king in captivity, but the emperor agreed to set him free for a ransom of £100,000. So the English had to scrape the money together, perhaps not unwillingly, for they were proud of the Crusader king. Philip of France wrote John to be on his guard, saying, "The devil is loose again."

49. Saucy Castle.—When Richard reached England, he took away John's lands and castles because of his treachery. Then almost at once he set off for France to punish Philip, who was trying to win Normandy. Richard built a great castle on the Seine which he called his "Saucy Castle." This made Philip very angry, because Richard had given a pledge that no castle should be built there. When Philip heard the news, he said, "I would take it if its walls were of iron." Richard sent answer, "I would hold it if its walls were of butter."

50. Death of Richard.—Shortly afterwards Richard besieged a castle held by one of his own nobles, who refused to surrender a treasure he had found. An archer, who is said to have used a frying-pan for

a shield, shot the king from the walls of the castle. Very soon the castle surrendered, and the archer was brought before the dying king. "How have I harmed you that you should kill me?" said Richard. The young archer said: "My lord king, you killed my father; you killed my two brothers, and you meant to kill me. Revenge yourself on me as you will." Richard forgave him, but in spite of this the youth was flayed alive and then hanged.

51. Knighthood. — This was the age of knighthood, and the knight was the ideal warrior. The usual order of service was first a page, next a squire, and last of all a knight. A nobleman's son was sent at an early age to live as a page in the castle of some friend or relative. Here he learned to wait on the lord's lady, run errands, and above all, to be courteous and obedient. He then served a long period, often seven years, as a squire. This was to give him a training in war. He must see that his lord's horses were in good order, carry his shield, give him a new lance if he needed one, and drag him from the battle if he were wounded. He must wait on his master at table, carve his meat, and fill his wine cup. When his term of squire service was spent, he became a knight, but he had first to spend a day and a night, sometimes more, in a church, fasting and praying, and guarding his armour. Then he took a solemn oath to be loyal to king and church, and to protect every lady in distress. After this some noble lady buckled on his spurs, which were the special

badge of knighthood. The king or some noble now struck him lightly on the shoulder with the flat of a sword, saying : " In the name of God, St. Michael, and St. George, I dub thee knight. Be brave ; be ready ; be loyal." Often soldiers who distinguished themselves in battle were made knights without the long service of page and squire.

The motto of knighthood was *noblesse oblige*, which means *high rank demands noble character*. On the whole, knighthood made warfare less brutal, because it taught that a conquered enemy should be kindly treated. It taught reverence for women of high rank, but did not teach that any courtesy was due to those of mean birth. The age of knighthood, which lasted until the end of the Wars of the Roses, is called the age of chivalry, meaning the age of noble and heroic deeds.

SECTION 3. JOHN LACKLAND, 1199-1216

52. Loss of Normandy. — On Richard's death, John, the youngest son of Henry II, was chosen king by the barons and bishops. But across the Channel the people were loyal to John's nephew, Arthur, who was now a youth of fourteen. John crossed into Normandy to wage war against Arthur, and took him prisoner. Soon afterwards Arthur disappears and there is every reason to believe that John had some part in his death. One story says that John stabbed him and sank his body in

the river Seine. At any rate, Philip of France charged John with the murder, and when he made no attempt to clear himself, Philip seized his French provinces. Although John tried to win them back, he lost all except a few in the south, and his control over those was very uncertain. This loss was a great gain to England, because English men and English money were no longer wasted in wars to defend a foreign soil, and also because as soon as the barons of Norman blood were cut off from France, they became wholly English.

53. John's Quarrel with the Church. — As John had rebelled against his father and been disloyal to Richard, it was hardly possible that he would make a good king. He had great talents, but was so selfish, so cruel, and so mean, that no good could come from his rule. When he died, one man said that hell itself would be made foul with John's presence.

Soon after John was crowned, the Archbishop of Canterbury died. The monks chose a new archbishop; John chose another. When the Pope heard of it, he chose yet another. John refused to admit Stephen Langton, the Pope's choice, into England. The Pope then laid England under an *interdict*, which meant that all religious services were to be suspended. No marriages could be celebrated in churches, no burials could take place in the churchyards, and the dead were laid in fields and in ditches. Children might be baptised and dying persons given the sacraments, but nothing further.

England
under an
interdict



ORDAINING A PRIEST.

After this state of affairs had lasted for some years the Pope excommunicated John; that is, cut him off from the church entirely, and pronounced awful curses upon him. No man dared even to eat with one thus disgraced.

John cut off from the Church

Still John held out. Then the Pope deposed John and called upon Philip of France to take possession of England. John now became very much alarmed, because he knew that his tyranny had turned the people against him and he feared that he could not

depend upon their support. All at once he gave way and laid his crown at the feet of the Pope's legate, to receive it back as a vassal of Rome. One condition of his vassalage was the yearly payment of a thousand marks to the Pope. John submits The English people felt much humiliated, saying, "He has become the Pope's man." The Pope removed the interdict and recalled Philip of France from his invasion of England. Langton was at once given his rights as Archbishop of Canterbury. John then went over to France to fight Philip, but was defeated, and compelled to return to England.

54. Barons in Rebellion. — When John returned, he began to lay grievous taxes upon the barons. They asked for fair treatment, but he used every device a wicked and clever king could think of to get more money. The barons were fined, the church robbed, the chartered towns illegally taxed, and the Jews plundered. From one rich Hebrew of Bristol, John demanded a sum that would be equal now to £100,000. The Jew refused to pay, and John had one of his teeth pulled each day until on the eighth day he yielded. John had an army of hired soldiers, but the barons, who had the support of the church, were still stronger. So badly had John treated the church that the Archbishop of Canterbury, Stephen Langton, was leading the barons.

55. Magna Charta. — At Runnymede, a meadow on the Thames, the barons forced John to sign the Magna Charta. This great charter is often called

the corner-stone of English liberty because it is the first written promise an English king was ever forced to give his people. It contained nothing new, but it laid down in plain words the rights of every Englishman. One of the original copies with the king's great seal and the smaller seals of the barons is still preserved in the British Museum. In all the Great Charter contains sixty-three separate clauses, but to us those concerning taxation and freedom from unjust imprisonment are of most importance. In our times we are so secure from illegal taxes and so carefully protected from unjust punishments that we can scarcely realise how English kings ever had the power to take men's goods without making payment, or to throw them into prison without trial upon some petty excuse.

Magna Charta said that the king was to levy no taxes upon those who held their lands from him unless those taxes were agreed to by those who had to pay them. This did not mean that the king was to give up his ancient right to aids, but that he was not to go beyond those rights. No freeman was to be outlawed, or imprisoned, or have his property taken from him, except by the judgment of a lawful court where the jury would be men of his own rank. If the king's officers seized a subject's goods they were bound to make immediate payment. Church lands were not to be unjustly taxed, nor was the king to interfere with the clergy in their right to elect from among themselves such church officers as bishops and

archbishops. Justice was not to be delayed or bought or sold, and the assize courts were to be held regularly four times a year in each county. Before this time it had frequently happened that the king's courts would not bring suits to trial unless the parties to the suits would give large sums as bribes, and often the man who could pay most won the suit.

Every Norman king had shamefully abused his right to be the guardian of barons' children. Sometimes before the ward became of age the estate was stripped by the king's officers, and then given over to its owners only on payment of enormous fines. Magna Charta declared this illegal. It also gave foreign merchants the right to come into England and go out at will, without paying heavy toll. The king's foreign soldiers were to be sent out of the country. Finally, the Great Charter said that five and twenty barons should be chosen who were to see that the king kept his promises, and in case he did not grant justice to a suit within forty days, these barons



JOHN SIGNING MAGNA CHARTA.

were to seize his castles and lands, and wage war against him until he should right their wrongs. Even after Magna Charta Englishmen were often unjustly taxed and kept in prison without being tried, but every man knew such injustice was contrary to the law and felt that sooner or later the right would win.

John signed the Charter, but only because he could not avoid it. In his anger at having to submit he rolled on the floor and chewed sticks and straw. He said, "They have given me five and twenty overkings."

56. The Death of John. — Before signing the Charter, John had become the "Pope's man," and the Pope now freed him from his oath to keep faith with the barons, on the ground that the vassal could not be bound without the consent of his lord. John anxiously waited for soldiers from Europe that he might defy the barons. Many soldiers came, and with their aid John laid waste the country, acting if possible more like a tyrant than ever before. Almost in despair, the barons asked Louis, the Dauphin of France, to come to their aid, promising him the crown. Shortly after Louis arrived John was crossing the Wash, when the rushing tide swept away his baggage, his money, and the crown jewels. This so angered him that he fell into a fever of which he died.

SECTION 4. HENRY III, 1216-1272

57. *Foreigners prey upon England.* — Louis now had little support, as the people preferred to have John's young son Henry for king. But as Louis had captured some castles and put French soldiers in them, it was more than a year before the English succeeded in driving him out of the country. Henry was only nine years of age, so for some years the real power was in the hands of a council of barons, of whom the Earl of Pembroke was the chief. While he lived, the land had peace, but as soon as the young king reached manhood, and ruled alone, troubles came.

Henry married Eleanor of Provence, and partly for this reason, and partly because of his mother's influence, he showed much favour to foreigners. The best offices in England were given to Frenchmen. At one time Henry promised the Pope to give livings to three hundred Italian priests before an Englishman should have even one. French women were brought over and married to English youths who were wards of the king, and English heiresses were married to Frenchmen. Besides the wealth heaped upon foreigners, the king spent extravagant amounts for show. As a result, he was always in need, and made so many demands upon his people that their patience was worn out. At the birth of Prince Edward he begged so many gifts of the people that one man said, "God gave us the child, but the king sells him to us."

Henry III
extravagant

58. Simon de Montfort. — Among the Frenchmen who were made rich with English lands was Simon de Montfort, who inherited large estates through his grandmother. So high did he rise in royal favour that he won the hand of the king's sister. But this did not prevent him from joining with the English barons to oppose the king. When the king's reckless waste forced him to ask grants of money from the barons, they made him swear to observe the Great Charter. Henry was quite ready to swear, but still more ready to break his oath. In 1258 the barons were summoned to meet the king at Oxford to raise a large sum of money for the Pope. They were in an angry mood, and, led by de Montfort, they



TOMB OF HENRY III IN
WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

drew up what are known as the Provisions of Oxford. The real power of government was taken from the king and placed in a council of barons, with de Montfort at its head. The king's

Provisions of
Oxford, 1258

friends nicknamed this meeting the Mad Parliament. Several barons now grew jealous of de Montfort, and the king with their aid tried to recover his power. A battle was fought at Lewes, in 1264, between the king's party and de Montfort. The king was defeated, and together with Prince Edward, was taken prisoner.

De Montfort ruled in the king's name, and peace seemed at hand. An event now took place that has made the name of Simon de Montfort famous for all time. The king had, up to this time, summoned only barons and bishops to the Great Council. De Montfort called a Parliament, and in addition to barons and bishops, he summoned two knights from each shire, and two burghers from each borough. For the first time the citizens of large towns had a voice in the affairs of the nation. As the chief object of the king in summoning Parliament was to secure grants of money, the knights and burghers did not at that time consider it any honour to be called to the Council; but as the years went on, Parliament began to do much more than merely consent to taxation.

De Montfort's Parliament, 1265

De Montfort's rule caused jealousy, and his sons were unpopular with the people. Prince Edward escaped from Earl Simon's control, and, gathering a large army, defeated his uncle at Evesham. The rout was complete, and *Battle of Evesham, 1265* De Montfort was slain. His rule had been so just that people called him Sir Simon the Righteous. Henry died shortly after. His life was free from

the low vices that degraded King John, but he had no power to rule nor any respect for a promise.

59. White Friars and Black Friars.—During the reigns of John and Henry III the power of the Pope over the English church was almost supreme. John had openly received his crown as the Pope's vassal, and his son had robbed Englishmen to provide for foreign priests. It is said that during the time of Henry III the Pope received taxes from England that would to-day be worth £5,000,000.

Just at this time there lived two wonderful men who did much to give the people a truer idea of Christianity. St. Dominic was a Spaniard of high birth who began to preach against vice and pride in the church. He obtained the Pope's consent to found a new order of friars, named after himself, Dominicans, and called white friars, from their white tunics. Fifteen of these men came to England to preach. A similar order called Franciscans, or black friars, was founded in Italy by St. Francis. The monks of previous ages had tried to save their own souls by leaving the world and shutting themselves in monasteries. The Dominicans and Franciscans tried to save others by living in the world with them. The friars took a solemn vow to remain poor. They might receive food and clothes, but on no account were they to take money. Only in severe climates might they wear shoes. Their whole life was to be one of sacrifice and suffering. Their work was among the poor and outcast. Outside the walls of towns,

where the poorest and most miserable lived, the worthy friars went about, two by two, bringing little comforts and kind words to the sick and dying. The lepers, who were shunned by all others, were their special care. Such devotion won respect for the friars, and in a few years they were more popular



DOMINICAN AND FRANCISCAN MONKS.

than the priests. It is sad to think that within a hundred years they became worldly and lost much of their influence.

SECTION 5. EDWARD I, 1272-1307

60. An English King of Norman Blood. — When Henry III died, his son Edward was in Sicily on his way home from a Crusade. Learning from a messen-

ger that all was quiet in England, Edward journeyed slowly across Europe and reached England in 1274. Great preparations were made for the coronation. The houses were hung with tapestry and the streets were gaily decorated. Four hundred oxen, besides thousands of sheep and hogs, were ordered by the king, and for two weeks every citizen who came to London was invited to feast and drink at the king's expense. It is easy to understand why the people hailed the new ruler with so much joy. He was young, handsome, strong, and brave. He was neither Norman nor Angevin, but English, and on many occasions during his father's reign he had shown his liking for the common people. His great aim was to make England a strong country, and this he knew could be done only by putting a stop to all civil wars. Edward's motto was "keep troth"; his father's and his grandfather's motto might well have been "break troth." His reign is memorable because of three great events. He conquered Wales; he partly conquered Scotland; he summoned a Parliament that represented all classes of the people.

61. Conquest of Wales, 1282. — Wales was the land of the ancient Britons. It was the home of the remnant of a race. Many kings of England had tried to subdue it, and some had exacted a kind of homage, but the Welsh were so firmly intrenched among their mountains that a complete conquest seemed almost impossible. The Welsh were split up into clans and often fought among themselves when they were not

fighting the English. Edward called upon Llewellyn, the Welsh prince, to pay homage. In the end Llewellyn consented, partly because Edward had seized Eleanor, a daughter of Simon de Montfort, who was



EDWARD I.

the promised bride of the Welsh prince. Six years later, David, Llewellyn's brother, led the Welsh in rebellion. After a terrible war, waged in the depth of winter, Llewellyn was slain and David captured. The conquest was complete, and Edward built strong castles at Conway and at Carnarvon to hold the

Welsh in awe. Edward also pleased the Welsh vanity by promising them a prince born in their own country who could speak no English. He then presented them with his infant son, Edward, who had been born at Carnarvon Castle during the war. Ever since that time the eldest son of an English sovereign has usually borne the title of Prince of Wales.

62. A Representative Parliament. — In 1295 Edward was much in need of money. The towns and country places had prospered greatly during the last twenty-five years of peace, and the king thought that they should pay a tax towards the expenses of the nation. But it was necessary to have their consent. Edward summoned a Parliament and commanded each shire to elect two knights and each town to elect two citizens. Thus when the Parliament met it was made up of barons, bishops, abbots, knights, and citizens. The king wisely said that what concerned all should be agreed upon by all. Perhaps Edward copied the example of Simon de Montfort, who had summoned a Parliament somewhat the same in 1265.

63. The Conquest of Scotland. — When the Saxons came to Britain, the people of the far north were called Picts. Let us now see how this north country came to be called Scotland. The Scots were an Irish tribe of the same blood as the Britons and the Picts. Shortly after the Saxons came to England a tribe of Scots gained a footing in the land of the Picts, in the part now called Argyleshire. In

the meantime the Saxons had spread over the Cheviot Hills and north as far as the Firth of Forth. But a time came when the Saxons north of the Tweed had to submit to the rule of the Picts. A little later the line of Pictish kings came to an end, and the king of the Scots became king of the whole northern part of the island. From this time the kingdom was called Scotland. Different English kings had claimed to be over-lords of Scotland, but the claim was scarcely more than a pretence. Edward I was to make a brave attempt to turn this pretence into a reality.

Alexander III of Scotland, while riding, fell over a cliff and was killed. The nearest heir to the crown was his little granddaughter, called the Maid of Norway because she was also granddaughter to the king of Norway. There was a plan to marry this maid to Edward, Prince of Wales, but on her way from Norway to Scotland she fell ill and died in the Orkneys. The crown of Scotland was now claimed by thirteen nobles of royal blood, of whom John Balliol and Robert Bruce were chief. To prevent civil war the Scottish lords appealed to Edward I to choose between Balliol and Bruce. Before consenting, Edward required the Scottish nobles to agree that the king of Scotland should hold his kingdom as a vassal of England. Edward then summoned a great council at Norham Castle on the Tweed, and after carefully weighing the rights of each claimant he decided in favour of Balliol.

Balliol swore fealty to Edward and was crowned

king of Scotland. Edward soon made him feel his position as a vassal by requiring him often to come to London on trivial excuses. In a short time the Scottish people forced Balliol to defy Edward, and

war began. Edward marched a strong army into Scotland and soon won the strongholds. Balliol was captured and all resistance at an end. Scotland was placed under a regent and was practically a part of England. Edward even carried away from Scone the stone upon which the Scottish kings had sat when they



THE CORONATION CHAIR.

were crowned. An old legend said that this was the same stone upon which Jacob had rested his head when he saw the angels ascending and descending the ladder. The English king had the stone built into a chair and placed in Westminster Abbey. Since that time the English sovereigns have been crowned sitting in the chair. The Scots had a prophecy that wherever this chair went a Scottish king would rule,

and when James VI became king of England in 1603 the people of Scotland said the old prophecy was fulfilled.

64. Honour to a Faithful Wife. — Nothing in his life reflects greater credit upon Edward I than his affection for Queen Eleanor. For thirty-five years they were scarcely a day apart. Eleanor died at Grantham in Lincolnshire, and her body was carried back to London for burial. Ten or twelve days were spent on the journey, and the sorrowing king followed the bier on foot. In every town where the body rested for the night, the king had magnificent crosses built, called Queen Eleanor's Crosses, three of which are yet standing. Thirteen in all were built and a sum equal to \$200,000 in our money was spent on them. The king also set aside a large sum to keep tapers constantly burning in front of her tomb. For two hundred and fifty years, until the Protestant Reformation made such customs unlawful, these tapers were never allowed to go out.

65. Sir William Wallace. — Thinking Scotland subdued, Edward went to France to settle with the French king, who was disputing England's claim to Guienne. We now hear for the first time of Sir William Wallace and his heroic attempts to free Scotland from English rule. Early Scottish writers for the most part make Wallace a great hero, while English writers pass him lightly by as a robber, ruffian, and murderer. Wallace suffered some insult from an English soldier and in revenge he took up arms

against Edward. At first he does not seem to have had many followers, and the few he had were mostly of the humble class. In fact, the armies raised

by Wallace mark the beginning of an attempt by the common people to assert their rights against the mail-clad knights and barons. Gradually the personal bravery of Battle of
Wallace at Stirling

drew around him many bold spirits until he had an army. This army now marched into England and com-

mitted terrible havoc. Even churches were robbed of their treasures. Edward's army followed Wallace back into Scotland and was badly beaten at Stirling in 1297. The English had to cross a narrow bridge in order to attack, and when they were about half over Wallace made his attack at the bridge, thus cutting the English army in two and defeating each half in turn.

Edward hurried home from France in 1298 and gathered an army of one hundred thousand men, of



SIR WILLIAM WALLACE.

whom forty thousand were Welsh, to march against Wallace. The Scots formed themselves into squares and fought with desperation, but the English longbowmen and cavalry were more than a match for the peasants' spears. The Scots were crushed, and Wallace escaped from Falkirk with only a few followers. He now lived for a time in hiding, part of the time being spent in France. He had failed because the Scottish people were not united. Many of their nobles were of Norman blood and had little sympathy with the peasant class in their love of freedom. Wallace returned to Scotland and was betrayed into the hands of the English by Sir John Monteith in 1305. He was taken to London and condemned to death. Dragged behind horses' tails to the place of execution, his head set on London Bridge, crowned in mockery with a garland of oak, his body quartered, and his bloody limbs sent to Scotland as a warning to rebels, Wallace conquered in the moment when all seemed lost.

66. Robert Bruce.—The effect upon Scotland of Wallace's death was directly opposite to that hoped for by Edward. The Scottish people saw clearly their pitiable and down-trodden condition when a foreign king dared to pay such insult to the memory of their brave countryman. A determination to throw off the English yoke stirred the whole land.

Robert Bruce, a grandson of Balliol's rival, was now twenty-three years old. Up to this time he had

shown some friendship for Edward and had lived much at the court in London. Just after the death of Wallace, Bruce escaped from London to Scotland, where his first act was to commit a foul murder. He had some quarrel with Comyn, nephew and heir to John Balliol. To get rid of a possible rival, Bruce stabbed Comyn in the church at Dumfries. But the name of Balliol was so detested in Scotland that the people were ready to overlook the murder as an act of self-defence, and Bruce was crowned king. Edward's wrath was terrible. He sent an army into Scotland, <sup>Bruce de-
feated</sup> and for a time carried all before him. Bruce had to go into hiding, while his wife and daughters fell into Edward's power. The Countess of Buchan, who put the crown on Bruce's head, was

exposed to public view in an iron cage hung on the outer wall of Berwick Castle. Scottish nobles and priests who had aided Bruce were hanged side-by-side. When the Earl of Athole pleaded for mercy on the ground of his royal blood, Edward's reply was an order to the hangman to stretch him up high above the other prisoners. The Scots were

ROBERT BRUCE.

now aroused, and a determined and united people are hard to conquer. Bruce was soon in arms again with many followers.



67. **Death of Edward I.** — Edward gathered a great army to crush the Scots. The brave old king was now worn out with a life of warfare, and his hopes rested on the Prince of Wales. The Royal army moved slowly northwards, but the king grew weaker every day, and died on the march when near the border. He ordered his son to continue the war, saying, "Wrap my bones in a bull's hide and carry them before you on the march, for the rebels will not be able to bear the sight of me alive or dead." He had done much to make a nation of England, and the people were sad when news came of his death.

68. **The Jews.** — One cruel act shows the spirit of the age. The Jews had been allowed to live in England for centuries. The kings had protected them, and in return had robbed them and forced loans from them. The English people hated them because they were Jews, and because they gathered so much wealth by charging high interest on loans. The clamour of the people grew so loud that King Edward could no longer protect them, and sixteen Jews driven
out of Eng.
land thousand set out for the continent, carrying their wealth with them. Thousands of these poor people were murdered or set adrift in boats after being robbed. It is to the credit of Edward that he hanged every man who was proved guilty of any share in the outrage. Until the time of Oliver Cromwell no Jews were allowed to live in England.

SECTION 6. EDWARD II, 1307-1327

69. The King's Unworthy Favourites. — The young king was much like his grandfather, Henry III. He had no desire to treat his people harshly. He was brave enough in battle, but too weak to rule. Instead of vigorously pushing the Scottish war, he spent his time in pleasures, and angered his people by giving his confidence to unworthy favourites. Even before the death of Edward I, Piers Gaveston was exiled because of his evil influence on the young prince. Gaveston was gay, witty, brave in the tournament, but greedy, extravagant, and unprincipled. He mocked the English barons, calling one "The Jew," and another "The Black Dog." No sooner was Edward king than Gaveston was recalled. The barons insisted on his exile, but he was again recalled, and finally beheaded by the nobles whom he had laughed at. Among the two hundred costly gifts which Edward heaped upon this Frenchman were found presents that Queen Eleanor had given her son when he was a little boy. A single ring with a ruby was valued at £1000. All these were in addition to titles, offices, and vast estates.

70. The Scots regain their Castles. — While Edward II was wasting his time and money with vicious companions, the Scots were slowly undoing the conquest of Edward I. Bruce learned valuable lessons from the many hardships he bore during the years when his followers were few. Sometimes the English pur-



LABOURING SCENES IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

sued him for days, tracking him with bloodhounds through swamps and over mountains. But the idle, pleasure-seeking life of Edward II told in Bruce's favour, and one by one the castles of Scotland were won back and garrisoned by soldiers determined to hold them against England. The Black Douglas outwitted the English many times, and often gained by stratagem what he could not win in open fight. He captured Roxburgh Castle by having his soldiers crawl along in the dusk of evening on hands and feet, disguised to resemble cattle. A peasant captured Linlithgow by concealing soldiers under loads of hay intended for the officers' horses, and halting the loads so that the portcullis could not be lowered.

71. **Scotland becomes Independent.** — By 1314 every English garrison had been withdrawn from Scotland except that in Stirling Castle. To save this castle and to prevent the Scots from ravaging England, Edward gathered an immense army. There were at least one hundred thousand men, of whom thirty thousand were cavalry. Bruce had only thirty thousand all told, but they were veterans fighting for homes and freedom. The English had immense supplies of food, wine, military stores, and cooking-

utensils. Thousands of cattle and tens
Battle of Bannockburn, 1314 of thousands of sheep slowly followed the camp. The Scottish soldiers each carried a baking-pan and a bag of oatmeal. For meat they depended upon the herds along the line of march.



HISTORICAL MAP OF SCOTLAND.

The Scots had the advantage of position, and chose their ground so well that the English were compelled to attack from the front. To make this frontal attack the English were forced to cross a boggy ground where Bruce had arranged pitfalls set with pointed stakes to disable the cavalry. The English advanced in gallant style. The Scots kneeled to receive a last blessing from their priests, who exhorted them to fight bravely. When the English cavalry reached the boggy meadow honeycombed with pitfalls, there was a panic, and the disorder spread to the main army. The Scots rushed up to despatch the disabled and dismounted horsemen. Other Scots attached to Bruce's army as servants and freebooters, seeing the English in disorder, came up to share in the plunder. The main English army, taking these camp-followers for a new army coming to assist the Scots, broke their ranks and shifted every man for himself. King Edward escaped to Dunbar and reached London by boat. The English lost ten thousand men and all their baggage and supplies. Although the war went on for many years, the English never again made any serious attempt to conquer Scotland.

72. Edward II deposed. — After Gaveston's death, Edward II had other favourites, and his government finally grew so bad that Queen Isabella, and Mortimer her favourite, led an army against him. He was forced to resign the crown in favour of his young son. Shortly after, he was murdered in Berkeley Castle by Mortimer's orders.

Death of
Edward,
1327

SECTION 7. EDWARD III, 1327-1377

73. Firmness of the Young King. — Edward III was only a boy when his father was murdered, and for some time the chief power was in the hands of Mortimer and the queen-mother. But when Edward reached his eighteenth year he had Mortimer seized and beheaded because of his many evil deeds. An order was then issued by the young king, explaining what had been done and calling upon his subjects for obedience.

74. Cause of the Hundred Years' War. — The English kings still held some possessions in France, of which Guienne was chief. The king of France was overlord of these provinces, and at his bidding the English kings had to pay homage. Just as Edward I had been eager to bring Scotland entirely under his rule, so the French kings were eager to have complete control of all the provinces in any way subject to France. For this reason it was not the wish of the French kings that England should become stronger by a conquest of Scotland, and therefore some aid had been given by France to Balliol and Bruce. Philip of France now seized the duchy of Guienne, and refused to surrender it to Edward III. Edward, on his part, put forward a claim to the throne of France on the ground that his descent through his mother Isabella was more direct than that of Philip. In this way began the terrible Hundred Years' War.

75. A Sea Fight.—The first battle was for the mastery of the Channel. England's chief wealth was in wool, which found a ready market among the weavers of Flanders. Coarse cloth was woven in England, but all finer kinds were made in Flanders

from English wool and carried back to England.

This commerce was disturbed by some French vessels, and in revenge the English gathered a strong fleet and attacked Battle of Sluys, 1340 the French off Sluys on the Netherland coast. About eight thousand French seamen found a watery grave, and Philip's



MOVABLE "BREACHING TOWER."

navy was utterly destroyed. No man dared tell the news to Philip until his court jester said, "Those English are terrible cowards." "Why?" said Philip. "Because they were afraid to leap into the sea and drown as the French did," said the clown.

76. The Battle of Crécy, 1346.—Even yet Englishmen look back with pride upon Crécy. It was their

first great victory by land after Saxon and Norman became Englishmen. Bruce had won Bannockburn by the aid of the common people. Edward was now to win Crécy by the help of English yeomen who used the long bow. In France the common people were despised as unfit for war. When they did accompany the mounted knights, they went more as servants and pillagers than as fighting men.

Edward, accompanied by the Prince of Wales, who was only fifteen years old, crossed into Normandy with an army. Having passed the Seine, the English were making for Calais when they came up with the French army. King Edward determined to fight although his force was less than half that of the French. The English army was skilfully posted on a hill so that the knights could protect the bowmen. One division was led by the young prince, while the king, who had a reserve force in the rear, watched the fight from an old windmill. King Philip had fifteen thousand cross-bowmen from Genoa, who led the van. They had marched all day and were too weary to fight well, but the thousands in the rear hurried them on, and the fight began. A storm came on which wet the bowstrings of the Genoese. On they came, shouting to frighten the English. Just now the sun shone out brightly in the eyes of the French so as almost to blind them. Again the French and Genoese shouted, but the English moved not. When the enemy was near enough, the English bowmen, who had cases to

protect their bows from the rain, stepped forward one pace and let fly such a shower of arrows that the Italians turned and fled. This threw the French into confusion. "Kill me those cowards," said Philip to his horsemen, and thousands of the poor Genoese archers were cut down by those whose duty it was to protect them. The English pressed forward and delivered shower after shower of arrows until the French scattered in a panic of fear.

During the battle a messenger came to the king, asking aid for the Prince of Wales. "Is he dead or unhorsed?" said the king. "No." "Is he wounded?" "No, but he has great need of help." "Return to those who sent you," said the king, "and tell them not to send for me this day, happen what will, so long as my son has life. Say that I command them to let the boy win his spurs, and the glory of the day shall be his." Eleven princes, twelve hundred knights, and thirty thousand soldiers lay dead upon the field.

77. **England wins a French Town.**—After Crécy, Edward pressed on to Calais. This town had a thriving trade, and being situated on the Channel,

Siege of
Calais it was the headquarters for pirates who preyed upon English commerce. For this reason, and also because it would furnish a base of supplies for his war upon France, Edward determined to force its surrender. As the walls were too strong to make an easy assault, the English king besieged the town by land and sea with fifty thousand men. The brave burghers of Calais held out for nearly a

year. They encouraged the townsfolk to eat horses, dogs, and other animals. The French king was powerless to give any help, and when the people were nearly starved they wanted to make terms with Edward, who demanded unconditional surrender.



QUEEN PHILIPPA INTERCEDING FOR THE BURGHERS OF CALAIS.

Finally he agreed to spare the lives of the people if six of the chief men would come to him with halters around their necks. The wealthiest burgher in Calais was the first to offer himself. Five others came forward, and these six brave men marched to the English king, expecting no mercy, because Edward was angry at the length of the siege. Queen Philippa, the mother of the Black Prince, begged the lives of the six burghers, and sent them back to their friends with

Calais
surrenders,
1347

gracious words and rich gifts. Edward turned out every Frenchman who refused to take the oath of allegiance, and peopled the town with Englishmen. It remained an important centre of English trade for more than two hundred years.

78. France agrees to Peace. — Ten years after Crécy, the Black Prince led an army of English and Gascons through southern France and pillaged

Battle of
Poitiers,
1356

a people who were rich and peaceable. At Poitiers he met the French king John, and won a victory almost as decisive as Crécy. The French king was captured and carried to London. Here he was feasted and treated in knightly fashion by the Black Prince. A ransom was agreed upon, and John went back to France, but as the French people did not raise the ransom, their king, bound by honour, returned to London and died a prisoner. Four years later the treaty of Bretigny gave peace for a time. Edward gave up his claim to the throne of France, while the French king gave up Calais and all pretence to exact homage as overlord of Aquitaine.

79. The Black Death. — While the French war was raging, a terrible plague swept over Europe. The disease started in China and travelled west, carrying off millions in Asia and Europe. From France it crossed over into England in 1349, and for more than two years so many died that the living could scarcely bury them. The victims were given little warning; spitting of blood was followed by a swelling of the neck, and in many cases death came in a few hours.

In those times the people did not understand that good health depends so largely upon wholesome food, good water, pure air, sunshine, and cleanliness.

Dirt and disease The people in towns lived huddled together among heaps of filth and pools of foul water. Naturally the plague is more fatal among these people than among those in the country, and when the disease made its appearance in any place, all who could do so fled to the country. Parents would sometimes desert their children, and husbands their wives ; even priests would sometimes leave their people to die without one comforting word. Many of the poor friars gave their lives unselfishly to care for the sick and dying. In



EFFIGY ON THE TOMB OF THE
BLACK PRINCE.

hundreds of wretched homes the body of a friar lay stretched beside father, mother, and child. Nearly half the people of England died in three years. Fifty thousand corpses were buried in London in one field purchased by Sir Walter Manny.

80. **The Labourers.**—For a long time after the Norman Conquest a very large part of the Saxon people were in the condition of slaves. Some even wore iron collars around their necks. These poor men, with their families, were often sold by one owner to another, just as the planters in Jamaica and the Southern States used to sell the negroes.

At the time of the Hundred Years' War things were much improved. Many who were once slaves had become "free villeins." These villeins had small farms on the lord's estates for their own use. In return they were bound to labour for the lord a fixed number of days each year. There yet remained some who were serfs and who had to give their labour to the lord during the whole year, receiving in return a thatched hut for a home, with the right to pasture a cow or keep a pig on the lord's common. These serfs might become freemen by escaping to a town and living there for a year and a day. Or they might, by some turn of fortune, or by very hard work, get enough money to buy their freedom. During the wars with Scotland and with France the lords were often in great distress for money, and therefore ready to grant serfs their freedom for small payments. In

Free Villeins

Serfs bound
to the soil



COSTUMES OF FOURTEENTH CENTURY: BISHOP, EARL, COUNTESS,
AND JUDGE.

the same way the "free villein" often became a "tenant farmer," paying money-rent instead of giving payment in labour.

The Black Death carried off at least half the free labourers, but it left the same fields to till. The labourers found their services in great demand and of course asked higher pay, especially as food rose in price. The lords wished the men to work for their former wages, and because they would not do so the crops often spoiled in the fields. A common labourer at this time was paid two pennies a day; a mower, three pennies; and a carpenter, a tiler, or a smith, four pennies. It must be remembered though, that a penny would buy as much food as could be bought now with nine pence. A cow sold for twelve shillings, a sheep for one shilling eight pence, a fat goose for three pence, and a hen for a penny and a half.

When Parliament saw how difficult it was to get the labourers to work, a law was passed called the Statute of Labourers, which said that men and women under sixty years of age and having no land of their own must serve the first employer who offered them work, and that they must take the same pay as before the plague. But as labourers were so scarce, some landlords were willing to pay a little more than the old rate, and then the labourers would often go from parish to parish in search of better wages. Parliament then passed another statute which said that a labourer must not go outside of his own parish, and that any found roving would be arrested and branded on the forehead with the letter F, meaning fugitive.

81. Death of Edward III.—While the labour trouble was going on, the reign of the third Edward was drawing to a gloomy close. The Black Prince mis-

managed the French war, and after losing many of England's possessions came home to die. Good Queen Philippa was dead, and the old king was quite under the influence of bad advisers who plundered him and then left him to die, alone and desolate.

SECTION 8. RICHARD II, 1377-1399

82. The Poll-tax.—Although Edward III left several sons, the crown passed to Richard, the young son of the Black Prince. As the young king was

only ten years old, the real power was in the hands of a council appointed by Parliament. The boy-king was very extravagant and kept thousands of retainers and servants who had to be paid with public money. The expenses of the French war were still enormous. Parliament decided to levy a tax of 4d., called a poll-tax or head tax because it was laid upon every person in England over fifteen years of age. The poorest labourer had to pay as much as the wealthy noble.

Poll-tax, 1379

83. Oppression of the Peasants. — The peasants had already been heavily taxed and were in a discontented mood. The lords were still attempting to hold many of them as slaves and were trying to force from others the old villein service. The Black Death had shown the peasants their own importance, and they were openly demanding more freedom. No doubt, too, the victories won in France by English bowmen had helped them to see that a peasant's or a yeoman's strong arm was equal to that of a knight.

A Kentish priest named John Ball preached to the labourers in the market-place after mass. "My good friends," he said, "things cannot go well in England, nor ever will, until everything shall be in common; when there shall neither be villein nor lord and all distinctions levelled, when the lords shall be no more masters than ourselves. How ill have they used us! Are we not descended from the same parents, Adam and Eve? They are clothed in velvets and rich stuffs ornamented with ermine and furs, while we

wear poor cloth. They have wines, spices, and fine bread, when we have only rye and the refuse of the straw; and if we drink, it must be water. They have handsome manor-houses, but we must brave the wind and the rain in our labours of the field."

84. Tyler's Rebellion.—A tax-gatherer of Kent ill-treated the daughter of a tiler named Wat or Wal-

Wat Tyler's
Rebellion,
1381
ter, who had served in the French wars. The tiler killed the tax-gatherer with a

blow from his hammer and in a few days collected an army of one hundred thousand men. This peasant army, fitted out with rusty swords, bows, axes, and forks, marched upon London. They asked for a conference with the king, which was refused, because his advisers feared for his safety. But the next day the king received them and granted their demands, which were: (1) the abolition of serfdom and villeinage; (2) that the rent of land should be fixed at 4*d.* per acre; (3) liberty to buy and sell in all fairs and markets; (4) pardon for all offences. Richard commanded them to go home, and promised that he would have these liberties granted them in a charter which should be copied and sent to every village. In the meantime, while scores of clerks were copying the charter, some of the peasant mob were executing the Archbishop of Canterbury, the lord high treasurer, the poll-tax commissioner, and many lawyers, who were looked upon as evil men because of their connection with the law. On the day following, Wat the tiler was killed, and Richard saved his own life

only by promising to lead the peasants himself. Parliament refused to carry out the pledges of the king, and thousands of peasants were executed. The rising taught the lords that the serfs and villeins had a great power, and during the next hundred years the peasants gradually became free.

85. The Church and Religious Orders.—We have seen how a hundred years before this time the black friars and white friars established themselves in England. Many of them soon forgot the noble aims of St. Dominic and St. Francis, and instead of respecting their vows of poverty they became greedy. Usually they had the good-will and protection of the Popes, because they were willing to send to Rome a liberal share of their wealth. Two or three friars would travel in company carrying a tent, a portable altar, and all other necessaries for saying mass and hearing confession. When they came to a village, they would set up their altar on the green. Naturally many of the worst-living people preferred to make confession to a strange priest, whom they might never see again, rather than to the priest of their ^{Begging} _{friars} parish, who, knowing their real characters, would be more severe upon their sins. Then, too, it was charged that the friars abused the use of pardons and openly sold them for future as well as for past sins.

“Ful swetely herde he confession,
And pleasant was his absolution.”

The cloistered monks were not always good men. They had rich and well-cultivated lands, but often

lived lives of self-indulgence. The poet Chaucer pictures his monk as fond of hawking and hunting, keeping fine horses and swift greyhounds.



GEOFFREY CHAUCER.

"His hed was balled and shone as
any glas,
And eke his face as it had ben
anoint.
He was a lord ful fat and in good
point,
His eyen stepe and rolling in his
head.
He was not pale as a forpined
ghost,
A fat swan loved he best of any
roast,
His palfrey was as browne as is a
bery."

86. England resents Papal Interference.—The Popes were still struggling to establish their authority over England as they exercised it in other European countries. But the English people hated all foreign rule, and that of Rome was no exception. Indeed, as some of the Popes for a time lived at Avignon in France, and were naturally very friendly towards the French kings, the English bore them a special dislike, calling them French Popes.

From the time of the formation of the Saxon church an annual tribute amounting to one penny upon every family holding live-stock to the value of thirty pence, was claimed by the Popes. The English Parliament indignantly refused to pay thirty years' arrears of this tax known as Peter's pence, and objected

to the Pope naming foreigners for vacant positions in the English church. Very often these foreigners never came to England, but would draw the income attached to the living, leaving some poor curate to perform the work for a mere pittance; rich church livings had been given even to boys twelve years of age. Another right claimed by the Popes was that of excommunicating rebellious subjects. The English Parliament objected to this and passed the Statute of Praemunire, which declared that any one bringing papal bulls or other briefs or documents into England, should lose the king's protection and forfeit his lands and goods to the state. It is estimated that during the last year Edward III reigned the taxes sent out of England to the Pope were five times as great as those levied by the king. Between a third and a half of all the land in England was held by the church and religious orders.

Statute of
Praemunire,
1353

87. John Wycliffe. — The man who objected most strongly to the begging friars, the ungodly monks, the foreign priests, the taxes to Rome, the idle and useless lives of many of the clergy, and the pomp and luxury of the bishops was John Wycliffe, a learned priest who was a teacher at Oxford University. Wycliffe issued tracts among the people in which he boldly asserted that the friars were "sturdy beggars," and that thousands of the clergy were wolves robbing the people instead of being good shepherds protecting and caring for them. The bishops summoned Wycliffe

to trial for heresy, but he was set free. He enjoyed the protection of John of Gaunt, but many nobles were against him, because they said that his doctrines and preaching had helped to stir up the Peasants' Revolt. Wycliffe formed bands of "poor priests," who went out to preach and work among all, but especially among the poor. In time the followers of Wycliffe were nicknamed Lollards, which means babblers.

*Wycliffe's
"poor
priests"*

Great as was the other work of Wycliffe, we are to remember him chiefly because he was the first



JOHN WYCLIFFE.

our money. Some people wished to have copies with titles and headings in colours, and these cost enormous sums. Wycliffe died in 1384, at the Rectory of Lutterworth, where he had done so much hard work.

man to translate the Bible into English. For this reason he is often called the father of English prose. In those days books were written, not printed, and the making of one was a great undertaking. An ordinary copy of the New

Bible trans-
lated into
English

Testament was worth a sum equal to \$150 of



THE CANTERBURY PILGRIMS AT THE TABARD INN.

88. **Geoffrey Chaucer.** — If Wycliffe was the father of English prose, Chaucer was the father of English poetry. There were poems written in English between the Norman Conquest and the Hundred Years' War, but there was no poet whose verse can be easily understood by English-speaking people of to-day. Chaucer's poems can be easily understood, although, at first, some of the quaint old spellings are a little confusing. Chaucer was closely related to the royal family, and had therefore a good opportunity to know court life. He spent much time in travel and was with the English army in France. So we may easily believe that he knew much of the world. We are certain on this point as soon as we read his poems, because his characters are so lifelike that only a master of the world could have drawn them.

His great poem is the "Canterbury Tales," which describes a party of twenty-nine pilgrims, of all ranks and occupations, who set out from the Tabard Inn in London, to visit the tomb of Becket at Canterbury. Chaucer describes each pilgrim, and also makes each tell a story. The poet could be very severe upon the weaknesses of the monks and priests, but his sympathetic description of the poor parish priest shows us that he appreciated what was best in the church : —

"A good man ther was of religioun,
That was a poure persone of a toun ;
But riche he was of holy thought and werk.
He was also a lerned man, a clerk,
That Cristes gospel trewely wolde preche ;
His parishens devoutly wolde he teche.
Benigne he was, and wonder diligent,
And in adversite ful patient ;
Wide was his parish, and houses fer asonder.
But he ne left nought for no rain ne thonder,
In sickenesse and in mischief to visite
The ferrest in his parish, moche and lite,
Upon his fete, and in his hand a staf.
This noble ensample to his shepe he yaf,
That first he wrought, and afterward he taught.
A better preest, I trowe that nowher non is.
He waited after no pompe ne reverence
Ne maked him no spiced conscience,
But Cristes lore, and his apostles twelve,
He taught, but first he folwed it himselfe."

89. Richard II deposed and murdered. — For some time after the Peasants' Revolt Richard II had little real power, the government being in the hands of the Council and John of Gaunt. But in 1389 Richard

dismissed the Council and governed alone. He gave a fairly good government for some years, but in 1397 his fears of his enemies led him to execute some of them and exile others. He had unworthy favourites who wasted his money. The country was oppressed



SPECIMEN PAGE OF WYCLIFFE'S BIBLE.

with grievous taxes, and no man could get justice in the courts. Among others Richard had banished his cousin, Henry Bolingbroke, son of John of Gaunt, and seized his estates. In 1399, while Richard was absent in Ireland, Bolingbroke landed in England and soon had an army. Richard met him, but did

not fight because he could see that his own men were in favour of his cousin Henry. Richard resigned the crown, and Parliament gave it to Bolingbroke, who became Henry IV. In a few months Richard died, probably murdered by some creature of Henry. In Shakespeare's "Richard II" we have the murderer coming to Henry IV to claim a reward for his crime:

"*Murderer.* From your own mouth, my lord, did I this deed.

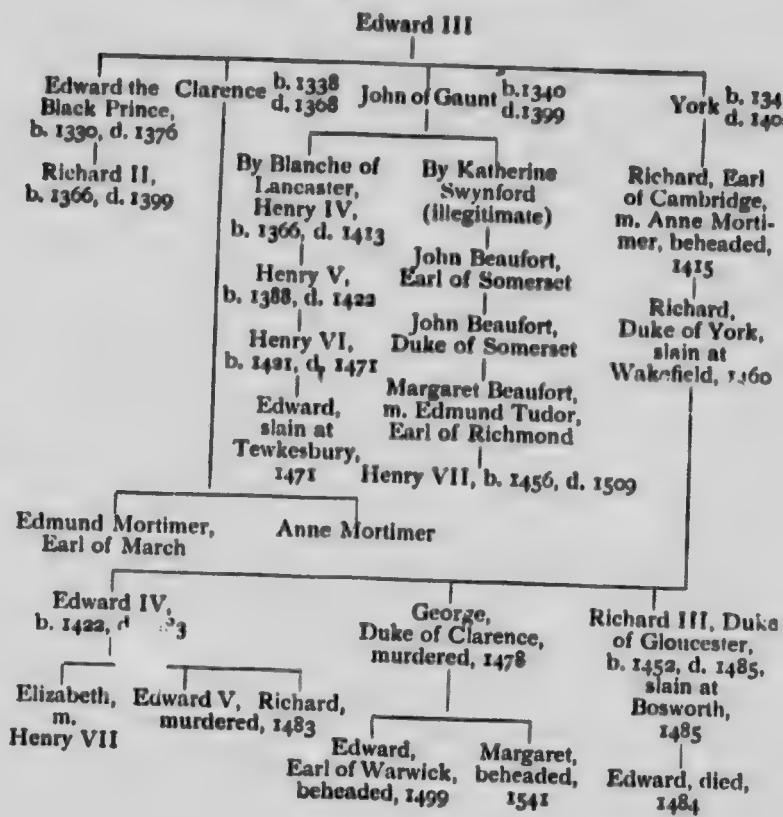
Henry IV. They love not poison that do poison need.
Nor do I thee; though I did wish him dead,
I hate the murtherer, love him murthered.
The guilt of conscience take thou for thy labour,
But neither my good word, nor princely favour;
With Cain go wander through the shade of night,
And never show thy head by day nor light."

90. **Scotland.** — After Bannockburn the strife between England and Scotland was mostly a border warfare. Robert Bruce was succeeded in 1329 by his infant son, David II, who was married to a sister of Edward III. But a descendant of Balliol, offering to hold Scotland as a vassal of England, got some help from Edward III, and for a time usurped the crown of David. In 1346, while the English were in France, the Scots invaded England and were defeated at Neville's Cross, David II being captured and sent to the Tower of London. He was set free in 1357, and died in 1370, leaving no heir. King David's sister had married the High Steward of Scotland, who in common speech was Stuart, and from this union sprang the Stuart line of kings. The

history of Scotland during the next two centuries is a dark one. The power of the Stuarts was overshadowed by the Douglas family. The border between England and Scotland was a sort of lawless land where bloody raids were as common as hunting excursions, while the Highlanders were ready to swoop down upon the Lowlands whenever a favourable chance offered.

91. Ireland.—The story of Scotland is one of bloodshed and strife, but that of Ireland is yet worse. The wars waged by Scotland created some national spirit, but the bloodshed in Ireland was the result of savage civil strife. *Ireland an unhappy land*
The English had made no real conquest. Even the coast district, supposed to be English, gradually assumed the manners and dress of the native Irish. To check this, the English in 1367 enacted the Statute of Kilkenny, which forbade the English in Ireland to adopt the native dress, language, or names, and made it treason for one of English blood to marry one of Irish blood. But for many years the island was constantly the scene of civil strife between the English of the Pale and the native races, and between the native chiefs themselves. Finally Richard II went to Ireland in 1399 with a strong force with the purpose of restoring order in the unfortunate country, and received the homage of many chiefs. He might have worked useful changes had not the coming of Bolingbroke made him hasten back to England.

IV. DESCENDANTS OF EDWARD III



CHAPTER V

LANCASTRIANS AND YORKISTS, 1399-1485

SECTION I. HENRY IV, 1399-1413

92. Henry IV and the Percies.—Shakespeare makes Henry IV say, "Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown." And few kings have felt more fully the truth of these words. The crown he won by force he retained for fourteen years, only by constant struggle. Owen Glendower, who was a great-grandson of Llewellyn, the last Prince of Wales, refused to believe that Richard II was dead, and defied the power of Henry. The Scots and French refused to acknowledge him, and the Percies of Northumberland, who were friendly at first, soon turned against him. The young Percy was called Hotspur, because of his rashness. Shakespeare speaks of him as, "He that kills me some six or seven dozen of Scots at a breakfast, washes his hands, and says to his wife, 'Fie upon this quiet life! I want work.'" In 1403 the Percies joined the Welsh and were defeated at the bloody battle of Shrewsbury, where Hotspur was killed. Glendower escaped and lived hidden among the Welsh mountains and caves for many years.



FOTHERINGAY CHURCH.

93. **Persecution of Lollards.** — To gain the support of the church, Henry consented to the Statute of Heretics. This cruel law gave bishops power to arrest and imprison preachers and writers or owners of books that taught heresy. The law was directed against the Lollards, of whom one bishop complained, "They hold schools, they write books, they do wickedly instruct and inform people and stir them to sedition and insurrection." Henry died suddenly, leaving the crown to his son.

"Heaven knows, my son,
By what by-paths, and indirect, crooked ways,
I met this crown : and I myself know well
How troublesome it sat upon my head ;
To thee it shall descend with better quiet."

SECTION 2. HENRY V, 1413-1422

94. Character of Henry V.—Shakespeare tells an interesting story about Prince Henry, who was twenty-five years old at his father's death. When Henry IV lay dying, the prince came into the room, and thinking his father unconscious, put the crown upon his own head. The dying king awoke, and missing his crown, upbraided his son for so much haste to be king. Other stories say that the young prince was very wild and fond of boisterous company. On one occasion he went before ^{An upright judge} Judge Gascoigne and demanded the release of one of his servants. For his insolence the judge commanded the prince himself to go to



SIR WILLIAM GASCOIGNE.

prison and await the pleasure of the king. The prince quietly obeyed, and when Henry IV heard the story, he said he was proud to have a judge so upright and a son who would obey the judge.

The young king was brave and kept his promises, and these virtues made him loved by his people. He continued the persecution of the Lollards, and a threatened rising among them was made an excuse for severity. Thirty-nine were executed. Their leader, Sir John Oldcastle, also known as Lord Cobham, was imprisoned, and later hanged in chains with a slow fire kindled beneath him.

95. Hundred Years' War renewed. — The serious mistake of Henry V was his renewal of the Hundred Years' War. But both the young king and his people were eager for military glory. Even the church gave him a loyal support, partly, perhaps, to draw the attention of the people away from her many weaknesses. Henry revived the claim of Edward III to the crown of France, and gathered a strong army to back up his pretension. France at this time was governed by an imbecile king and her nobles were divided into hostile parties. The French nation had no real Parliament, and the common people were in a condition of misery never known in England even in her darkest days.

Agincourt, ¹⁴¹⁵ Henry led a strong army into the north of France, and after capturing Harfleur, set out for Calais. He met a French army at Agincourt, four times as strong as his own. The English

were mostly yeomen with bows and arrows, and were in a desperate condition owing to disease and famine. The French army consisted of mounted knights and their retainers. Fortunately for the English the field of battle was soft clay ground, over which the French knights floundered in confusion. Every English archer carried a strong stake pointed at both ends, which he could fix in the ground with his hands. Thousands of these stakes made a palisade to protect the archers from the mounted enemy. When the French knights were thrown into confusion and many of them rolling in the mud, the English archers threw aside their bows, and using battle-axes, cracked open the plate armour of the enemy. Eleven thousand Frenchmen were slain.

After this battle Henry won other towns, and in 1420 peace was made by the treaty of Troyes. This treaty gave Henry a French princess for a wife, made him regent of France, and declared that he should become king upon the death of Charles VI. But within two years the English king died, fighting in France, leaving a son ten

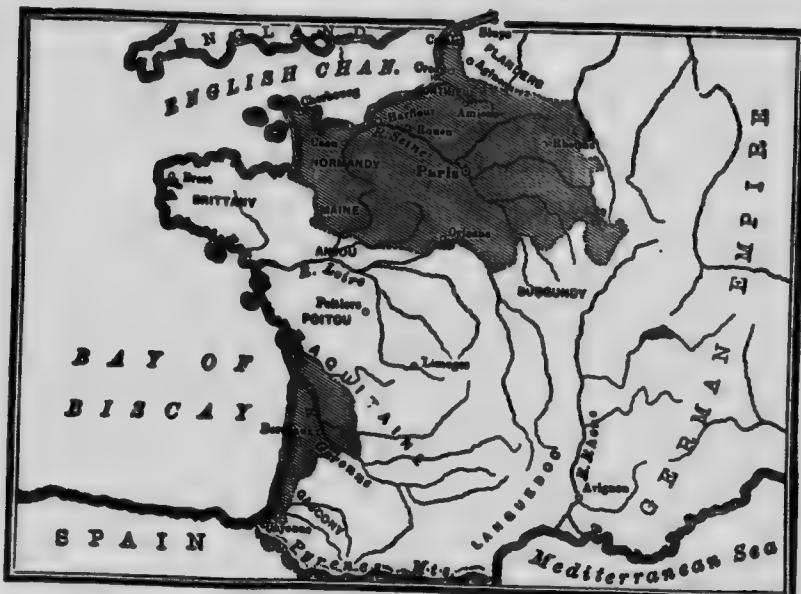


HENRY V.

months old to rule two great kingdoms. The king of France died a few weeks later.

SECTION 3. HENRY VI, 1422-1461

96. Joan of Arc.—John, Duke of Bedford, a brother of Henry V, was appointed Protector of Eng-



FRENCH TERRITORY HELD BY ENGLISH IN 1429.

land and Regent of France, in the place of his baby nephew, Henry VI. But it was hardly possible that the French would long submit to English rule, and that they did so at all shows how completely they had lost the spirit of a nation. This lost spirit was awakened in a very romantic way by a poor peasant girl of Lorraine, named Joan of Arc. Joan

had visions and heard "voices," which told her the Dauphin of France would be crowned at Rheims. At this time the English held all of France north of the Loire except Orleans, which was closely besieged. It must soon surrender, as the Dauphin was making no real effort to relieve it. Joan's "voices" now gave her no peace. Her duty was to go to the Dauphin and tell him of her visions. In vain her father said he would rather drown her than see her go away with the soldiers. She got an old captain to take her to the Dauphin, and once before him, she asked to lead his army to the relief of Orleans. She was given a white horse and a white suit of man's armour. The French needed only a leader, and the maid inspired them with courage, while the strangeness of her apparel disheartened the English, who began to think she might, as she said, have a mission from God.

*Siege of Or-
leans raised*



JOAN OF ARC.

The siege was raised, and the Dauphin crowned

in the cathedral at Rheims, as Charles VII of France.

Joan now asked to go home, saying that her mission was ended, and that she wished to keep sheep once more with her brothers and sisters, but the king of France had seen her power over his soldiers and refused to part with her. The "voices" now left her, and from this time on she lost as often as she won. Some of the French leaders were jealous of her power, and she was allowed to fall into the hands of the English. To the disgrace of the king of France, he made no effort to save her. The English tried her for sorcery, and she was condemned by the French Bishop of Rouen to be burned alive as a witch. With her last breath she protested that the "voices" were from God.

After this the war dragged on for about twenty years, but the English gradually lost what they had won, and instead of half the French kingdom, only Calais remained under English rule.

97. The Red Rose and the White Rose. — Edward III left a son who was Duke of York, and now that England was ruled by Henry VI of Lancaster, who proved weak in both body and mind, it was only natural that the heirs of the Duke of York should set up a claim to the crown. This claim led to thirty years of civil war, known as the Wars of the Roses, because the House of Lancaster had as a badge a red rose, while the House of York had a white rose.

Henry VI became insane, and Parliament chose for Protector, Richard, Duke of York, who was a grandson of the first duke of that name. But if Henry VI was weak, his wife, Margaret of Anjou, was strong, and determined to hold the crown for her young son.

SECTION 4. EDWARD IV, 1461-1483

98. Wars of the Roses.

— It would be too tedious to follow these wars through a dozen battles. Some of the nobles were ranged on each side. Richard of York was slain in 1460, but his son Edward became King Edward IV in 1461. Shortly afterwards, at the bloody battle of Towton, more than thirty thousand Englishmen were slain in one day, and Edward IV seized the estates of twelve nobles who were killed. No class suffered during these wars so much as the great landowners, and as their wealth usually went to the king, he was able to rule without calling a Parliament and to make himself very powerful.



COMPLETE SUIT OF PLATE
ARMOUR, FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

99. **Edward IV rules without Parliament.** — Edward IV had another way of obtaining money when he did not wish to summon a Parliament. He would ask ~~Benevolences~~ some rich man for a loan which he never intended to repay. These loans were called *benevolences*, and many kings after Edward IV were ready to take such pledges of their subjects' love. If a man who was asked for a benevolence refused to give it, the king could usually find some way to make him give up his money.

SECTION 5. EDWARD V AND RICHARD III,
1483-1485

100. **The Princes murdered.** — When Edward IV died, he left two sons and a daughter. The eldest son was crowned Edward V, while Richard, Duke of Gloucester, a brother of Edward IV, was named Protector.

Richard was ambitious and wicked. He soon persuaded Parliament to make him king, and shortly afterwards his two nephews were murdered in the Tower. It is said they were smothered with pillows while they slept. This deed shocked the English people and turned them against Richard. He still further won their hatred by proposing to marry his own niece, the sister of the murdered princes.

101. **Henry Tudor and Bosworth Field.** — There was living yet another descendant of Edward III, named Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, and all people now



MURDER OF THE PRINCES IN THE TOWER.

turned to him as the one to free them from their wicked king. Richard had given a good government and had made many laws for the benefit of the nation, but when Henry Tudor landed in Wales and marched across England, the people flocked around him with hearty welcomes. Richard met him on Bosworth Field in 1485. Just before the battle the chief part of Richard's force deserted to his rival. This made Richard only the more determined to kill his rival, and he fought desperately. All was soon over, and Richard lay dead, having fallen before he reached Henry Tudor. The royal crown was found near by on a thorn-bush, and was placed on the head of the successful leader before he left the field of battle.

102. **William Caxton.** — Up to the beginning of the fifteenth century a book was a treasure. Kings' libraries rarely contained more than a few hundred volumes, and we read that Henry V often borrowed books from his subjects. Early in the fifteenth century the Dutch began to print a few sheets from letters carved upon blocks of wood. Such sheets were called block-books. Güttenburg began to print in Germany, about 1440, from movable types, but to William Caxton belongs the honour of bringing this invention into England. Caxton was born in Kent and apprenticed to a merchant. In early manhood he went to the continent as a merchant, and there learned the art of printing. About 1474 he returned to London, and set up a press at Westminster. One of his first books was the "Royal Game of Chess." Then followed Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales," sermons, tracts, Latin poems, and service



RICHARD III.

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books for the clergy. In all, Caxton issued about fifty different books, several of which he translated himself from the French or the Latin.

103. End of the Middle Ages. — The period from the fall of the Roman Empire to the fifteenth century is usually called the Middle Ages, and the period since is called the Modern Age. Many reasons could be given for this division, but three or four are very important. The art of printing made books cheap and spread learning among the people. Many schools were founded about the end of the fifteenth century, and scholars who had learned Greek in Italy came to northern Europe to teach in the colleges. The invention of gunpowder changed the mode of fighting, made armour almost useless, and walled castles no longer secure. In future, success in war was to depend more on science than on bodily strength. This soon gave an increased importance to the commercial classes and of course lessened the influence of the old nobility. The invention of the mariner's compass and the great discoveries of Columbus turned men's minds towards other parts of the world and increased their knowledge.

The teachings of Wycliffe in England and of other scholars on the continent led to the Protestant Reformation. The church of Rome no longer held its former control over the consciences of men and women in Europe.

CHAPTER VI

THE TUDOR PERIOD, 1485-1603

SECTION I. HENRY VII, 1485-1509

104. **Right to Crown and Character.** — Henry Tudor could make no good claim to the crown through descent. His victory at Bosworth Field gave him a claim by conquest, and this claim was made legal beyond a doubt by Parliament, which declared him king and fixed the succession in his heirs. Shortly afterwards the king married Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV, and thus secured the good will of the Yorkists. Some one has said that England at this time needed a constable to keep order and that Henry VII was that constable. Certainly the first Tudor was different from previous kings. He had no desire to win glory in war. Stately pageants, long trains of nobles, and all such vain pomp and show were little to his liking. He loved power, and he saw clearly that to secure it he must crush the nobles and maintain peace. Let us see how this was done.

105. **Maintenance and Liveries.** — The Wars of the Roses had already broken many of the nobles. Less than thirty peers sat in the first Parliament of Henry VII. Cannon could destroy the strongest castles,

and only the king had such engines of war. The old custom among the nobles was for each to keep a great many servants wearing the lord's uniform or livery, and bearing his badge or family crest. Some of these retainers were the nobleman's house-



HENRY VII WITH EMPSON AND DUDLEY.

hold servants ; others were his tenants, and yet others were idle, worthless characters who wore his livery in order to fight in his quarrels and eat at his table. In this way a nobleman could soon get together a strong force ready to fight either for or against the king, and was equally ready to pick a quarrel with another nobleman or oppress some farmer or merchant.

Statutes had been passed by Edward IV to put an end to this evil, and Henry VII had them amended and strictly enforced. On one occasion he went to visit the Earl of Oxford and was received with much ceremony. 'Hundreds of the earl's retainers, wearing livery, were drawn up to form a lane down which the king must pass. Henry said, "By my faith, my lord, I thank you for your good cheer, but I may not endure to have my laws broken in my sight." Oxford was punished by a fine of £10,000. The king employed two lawyers, Empson and Dudley, who spent their time in devising plans to raise money by fines. They even searched out old forgotten laws and had the people who were breaking them fined. When Henry VIII became king and wanted to do something to please the people, he had these two men beheaded.

106. Court of Star Chamber. — Very wealthy men had so much power in their own neighbourhoods that it was difficult to punish them when they did wrong. The jurors and perhaps the judge feared to do justice because the great man might afterwards find some way to work them injury. To correct this evil Henry VII had Parliament establish a court which was called the court of the Star Chamber because of the decorations in the room where it sat. This court had no jurors and was presided over by the king's officers. In this way many powerful subjects were brought into order and perhaps some of them wrongfully punished. Any

penalty except death might be inflicted, but fines were the usual punishment. At a later date offenders sometimes had their ears cut off, noses slit, or were branded. Torture was also used to force confessions.

107. Benevolences. — Not only the nobles but all subjects having property were called upon by the king's officers for gifts. Cardinal Morton ^{Morton's fork} looked after these matters for the king, and his plan for getting money was known as "Morton's Fork." If a man was living in splendour, Morton's officers would say, "It's plain to see that you can afford a gift for the king." If a man lived plainly, they would say, "You practise such economy you can well afford a gift." In this way those who were not caught on one prong of the fork were caught on the other. So successful was Henry in getting his subjects' money by fines that he seldom called a Parliament. His government was therefore a personal or "one-man government" and almost absolute.

108. Plots against the Throne. — Two plots were hatched to dethrone Henry. Lambert Simnel pretended to be a nephew of Richard III. ^{Lambert Simnel} He secured aid in Ireland, came to England, was defeated, taken prisoner, and made a turn-spit in the king's kitchen. Perkin Warbeck pretended to be the younger of the two sons of Edward IV. It is almost certain that both the princes were ^{Perkin Warbeck} murdered by order of Richard III, but Warbeck received aid from Ireland and from Scotland. He was defeated and executed.

109. Foreign Alliances. — The Scots attacked England, but peace was made, and Henry gave his daughter Margaret in marriage to the Scottish king. This marriage afterwards led to a peaceful union of

England and Scotland. Henry's eldest son Arthur was married when still a boy to Catherine of Aragon, a daughter of Ferdinand of Spain. Arthur died within four months, and in order to retain Catherine's dowry the English king arranged that she should marry his second son, Henry.



GENTLEMAN AND BEGGAR.

110. Discoveries. — The world as known to Europeans when Henry VII became king was greatly extended before his death. Columbus and Da Gama opened the way across the Atlantic. Da Gama, a Portuguese, sailed down the coast of Africa, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and reached India. John Cabot, a Venetian, living in Bristol, in company with his son Sebastian, discovered Newfoundland in 1497. The private diary of Cabot Henry VII bears the entry, "To him that found the new isle £10." Another entry says, "To men of Bristol that found the isle £5." Henry died at an early age, leaving a fortune of

about £2,000,000 sterling, equal in our money to-day to \$120,000,000. As this had been wrung mostly from those who had plenty, the common people made little complaint. Some of this ^{Death of} Henry money had been voted by Parliament for a war with France. After the tax-gatherers had squeezed the grant from the people, Henry made a treaty of peace with France by which he secured an additional sum of £149,000.

SECTION 2. HENRY VIII, 1509-1547

111. A Young Prince with Bright Prospects.—No prince ever ascended a throne with brighter prospects than Henry VIII. Young, handsome, easy of approach, familiar in speech, brave, and fond of sport, he was an Englishman's ideal. His education was of the best, and besides English he could speak Latin, French, and Spanish. None of his knights could draw a bow with truer aim nor hurl a lance with equal strength. After a slight delay the king fulfilled the marriage treaty made by his father, and took to wife Catherine, his brother's widow, who was six years his senior. This bound him to Spain, then a powerful kingdom. England was at peace, the treasury was overflowing, and the people were happy and hopeful. Nothing seemed to show that the reign was to be the most eventful in the history of England up to that time.

112. Thomas Wolsey.—We cannot get a better picture of the early part of this reign than by a

study of its great man, Wolsey. He was born at Ipswich in 1471 of humble parents, his father being a sheep-farmer. Entering Oxford at eleven years of age, he graduated at fifteen, thus earning the name of the Boy Bachelor. During the next few years



HENRY VIII.

he was tutor, country priest, and clerk to the Lord Lieutenant of Calais. In 1506 he became chaplain to Henry VII. On the death of the queen in 1503, Henry VII wished to marry the daughter of the Emperor Maximilian, and he therefore sent Wolsey on an embassy to Belgium. Wolsey used such de-

spatch that he returned on the fourth day. Henry was angry at first, thinking he had not yet set out, but when he learned the truth, Wolsey was made dean of Lincoln. Henry VIII soon learned Wolsey's value. In 1512 and again in 1514 the English invaded France, but gained no permanent advantage. Wolsey was wholly responsible for the army supplies, and did his work so well that Henry made him ^{Archbishop of York}.

Wolsey was very anxious to keep Henry from war, but the young king was eager for glory and had some treasure to spend. In 1520 Wolsey arranged a peaceable interview between his master and the French king near Calais. So splendid were the preparations that the meeting was called the Field of the Cloth of Gold. King Henry had four thousand knights and gentlemen in his train, while Queen Catherine had one thousand. Not long after this the Pope made Wolsey a cardinal, and a little later gave him the powers of papal legate in England. As the king's chancellor Wolsey was now the chief man in all state affairs, while as cardinal and papal legate he controlled the affairs of the church.

No doubt as his power increased he grew more important in his own eyes. The Venetian ambassador wrote that on his first coming to England Wolsey would say, "The King will do so and so." Sometime later Wolsey would say, "We shall do so and so," and finally his expression was, "I shall do so and

so." Wolsey's income was enormous. He drew the revenues of four or five deaneries besides the archbishopric of York. He received yearly pensions from France, from Spain, and from the Pope. Besides this he obtained immense sums by way of fees from his



CARDINAL WOLSEY.

high office. But usually a princely revenue requires a princely expenditure, and Wolsey had to keep up almost the state of a king. Every journey abroad on the king's business took a small fortune, and this came from Wolsey's own pocket. He had some wish to become Pope, and on one occasion obtained seven votes for that office.

After living with Catherine of Aragon for nearly twenty years, Henry VIII began to have fears that their marriage was illegal. The Princess Mary was his only heir, four sons having died at birth. All Englishmen were sincerely anxious for a male heir to the crown, in order that danger of civil war might be lessened. Rumours spread that the king wished a divorce, and many

The king
desires a
divorce



WOLSEY TRAVELLING IN STATE.

people believed that his wishes were strengthened because of his affection for Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the queen. Wolsey, as king's minister, was asked to secure the divorce. The Pope was asked to say that the permission given to Henry by a former Pope, permitting marriage with his brother's widow, was illegal. The Pope feared to offend the king of Spain, who was Catherine's nephew, and besides he had no wish to declare illegal

an act of a previous Pope unless Henry VIII could show sufficient cause for such action. In the end the Pope sent Cardinal Campeggio to London to sit with Wolsey on the case.

By this time Queen Catherine had been forced to live in a palace apart from the king, but she firmly refused to give up her lawful title. When the trial

opened, the queen appeared, but refused to recognise the powers of the court, and appealed to the Pope. The trial dragged on, but no decision was given, and Campeggio returned to Rome. In the meantime the king was treating Anne Boleyn almost as if she were queen. Wolsey was distrusted by Anne, because she thought he



QUEEN CATHERINE AT THE DIVORCE COURT.

was half-hearted about the divorce. Anne influenced the king, and thousands were ready to pull the mighty cardinal down.

Wolsey had few friends. He owed his power wholly to the king, and his very fidelity to his master made enemies for him. The nobles were jealous of his power and scorned his humble origin. The middle classes were bitter towards him because he had been the king's instrument in

The fall of
Wolsey

collecting heavy taxes. The church was not very friendly because he had introduced some unpopular reforms. He had, with the Pope's authority, abolished some small monasteries and used the revenue to found a school at Ipswich and a magnificent college, now called Christ College, at Oxford. Wolsey had violated the Statute of Praemunire by holding the office of papal legate in England. Of course he had held this office with the king's consent, but now that Henry wished to humble him, he was charged with a breach of Praemunire. After surrendering his offices, palaces, and wealth to the king, Wolsey was allowed to retain the see of York, whither he now went.

"Take there an inventory of all I have,
To the last penny; 'tis the king's; my robe
And my integrity to Heaven is all
I dare now call mine own. O Cromwell, Cromwell,
Had I but served my God with half the zeal
I served my king, He would not in mine age
Have left me naked to mine enemies."

In a short time he won the love of the people in the North by his charity and wisdom. Perhaps he was too popular to please his enemies. The king sent to arrest him for treason, and Wolsey knew that death would follow. On the journey towards London his health gave way, and he reached Leicester Abbey, saying to the monks, "I am come to lay my bones among you."

113. **Cromwell and the Monasteries.**—The one man who made any real effort to save Wolsey was

Thomas Cromwell, a clerk, who had been the chief agent in suppressing the smaller monasteries. Like Wolsey, he was of humble birth. After spending some time in Italy as a banker's agent, he came to London, where he made a small fortune in business and was elected to Parliament. He won the king's



WOLSEY REACHES LEICESTER ABBEY.

notice by advising him to sue for divorce in his own courts. This Henry did, and it led to wonderful changes. In the first place, it led Henry to break with Rome and declare himself head of the English church. A very large number of his subjects were ready for such a change. At no time had the English liked any foreign interference. The taxes sent to Rome were bur-

Henry head
of the Eng-
lish church

densome and not always willingly paid by the clergy. But both laymen and clergy were soon to find that the king of England was a harder master than the Pope of Rome. If Wolsey had come under Praemunire, so had all the clergy by recognising his authority. Henry was graciously pleased to pardon them on condition that they should pay him a fine of £118,000 and acknowledge him head of the church. Very reluctantly they complied. Clergy fined

Sir Thomas More was the king's chancellor after Wolsey's death. He was a fine scholar, and no nobleman in Europe enjoyed more respect. When Henry married Anne Boleyn, More gave up his office and went home, hoping to live in peace with his family. Cromwell was made chancellor and laboured as faithfully as Wolsey to increase Henry's power. An act was passed requiring an oath to the effect that Henry's divorce from Catherine was legal. More was offered this oath, but refused to take it. He was then condemned on a charge of treason because he had practically refused to admit that the authority of king and Parliament was superior to that of the Pope. More died like a brave man. Even at the scaffold his wit broke forth. "You help me up," said he to his attendant, "as for coming down, I will shift for myself." This execution and that of the aged Bishop Fisher, who had just been made a cardinal by the Pope, showed Europe that Henry was in earnest, and that the power of Rome over England was broken.

Act of Supremacy.
1534

Death of More

Aided by Cromwell, Henry now began such changes as startled the boldest of his subjects. As these changes were all connected with the church and religious orders, it will help us to understand them



SIR THOMAS MORE IN THE TOWER.

better if we first picture to ourselves the condition of the church as Henry VIII found it.

Reference has already been made to the monks and friars and to the enormous amount of property held by the church. During the greater part of the Middle Ages the monks and priests were the only men of any learning.

Monasteries
during the
Middle Ages

They wrote books and copied manuscripts; they were the architects who planned and built many beautiful churches and abbeys; they looked after the spiritual welfare of the people; they made men's wills and distributed the property among the heirs; they frequently adopted orphans and educated them.



THOMAS CROMWELL.

they alone had schools where poor men's sons might learn to read; they alone gave alms to the poor. The monks were almost the only farmers who drained swamps and set good examples in agriculture. The abbeys were in some parts of the country the only places where travellers could get refreshment and lodging. In short, the monks, nuns, and

priests were an intimate part of the daily life of every family, and dark as the Middle Ages were, they must have been yet blacker but for the civilising and protecting care of the church.

All these vast numbers of churchmen were directly under either the Pope or his archbishops and bishops. The abbeys were seldom if ever inspected. It would be unreasonable to expect that the clergy were always holy men. The church grew rich, and riches

The church at
the end of
Middle Ages do not always make people better. Too often the friars became beggars, and the monks mere farmers. The clergy were

often ignorant, and ignorance goes hand in hand with superstition. It was charged that the worship of images and relics had taken the place of real piety, and that the sale of pardons and indulgences was common. Moreover, the clergy often assessed grievous taxes upon wills and for burial fees. No clergyman might be tried for a crime before the civil courts until he was first tried by a church court, and in those days any man who could read might claim "the benefit of clergy," and obtain a church trial.

Sanctuaries Certain churches and abbeys were "sanctuaries," and the worst criminal could claim protection there and be secure from the law. The "sanctuaries" of course were not established for the purpose of sheltering criminals, but in order that innocent men might find a refuge from the wrath of their enemies. Indeed, the "sanctuaries" had often sheltered good men from the unjust anger of kings.

But so faithfully was the right of "sanctuary" respected that criminals did receive protection.

The invention of printing and the revival of learning increased the intelligence of the people and made them believe that many things about the church were wrong. Such scholarly men as Wolsey, Bishop Fisher, and Sir Thomas More hoped to see the church reformed and purified by the gradual spread of learning among priests and people. They did not think that any change in church government was necessary.

During the reign of Henry VII the Pope had made an effort to reform some abuses in the monasteries, but nothing of real importance was done. In other countries of Europe conditions were much the same. In Germany, Martin Luther had defied the Pope and had begun the Protestant Reformation.

Cromwell had been employed by Wolsey to suppress some of the small monasteries. He now suggested to Henry a plan for having all the monasteries in England visited by commissioners. This was done, and a report was presented to Parliament. So many abuses were declared to exist in the smaller monasteries that Parliament voted to abolish them and give to the crown their land, plate, and money. In 1536 all those with an income under £200 yearly were swept away. In 1539 ^{Monasteries suppressed} the others suffered the same fate. The monks were supposed to get small pensions for life, but these were seldom paid. Still worse was the



HAMPTON COURT PALACE BUILT BY WOLSEY.

condition of ten thousand nuns who were turned upon the world with very little to support them.

This church property gave Henry VIII an immense source of power and wealth. The lands were sold to rich merchants or granted to newly made peers who were ready to support the king in everything. Some of the money was used to found schools, equip a navy, and build coast defences.

So bitter was the opposition to the spoliation of monasteries that serious rebellions broke out in the ^{Pilgrimage} north of England. At one time nearly one ^{of Grace, 1536} hundred thousand men were under arms. The rising was called the Pilgrimage of Grace, be-

cause every soldier bore a badge with a device to represent the five wounds of the Saviour. The pilgrims demanded that Cromwell be removed, that the monasteries be restored, and that the authority of the Pope be recognised. The king made some indefinite promises, but when all was quiet and the northern towns fortified, the leaders of the rebellion were tried and put to death.

Cromwell maintained an army of spies, and it was unsafe for any man to breathe a word against the king. Some of the proudest nobles in the land were brought to the block. It was claimed as an excuse for the king that England had many enemies in Europe anxious to strike her a blow, and that the safety of the nation would permit of no half-measures.

Like his old master, Cromwell came to grief over a new queen. Anne Boleyn bore the king a daughter who became Queen Elizabeth. Not long afterwards Anne was beheaded The fall of Cromwell on the charge of misconduct before her marriage. On the following day King Henry married Jane Seymour. The new queen bore a son, afterwards Edward VI, and died a few days later. Parliament now urged the king to take another wife, and Cromwell was anxious that the next queen should be a Protestant. Anne of Cleves was chosen and her picture sent to Henry. He seemed satisfied, but when the lady came, he found her plain and married her only because the treaty had been arranged. All the blame was thrown upon Cromwell, who was

soon charged with treason and executed. Only the poor whom he had befriended felt any sorrow. The nobles called him the "upstart blacksmith's son." Wolsey had tried to build up the king's power by ruling without Parliaments; Cromwell was bolder and made Parliament his obedient servant.

114. The English Bible. — When Luther began his attack on the Pope, Henry VIII wrote a book against the German reformer. The Pope praised Henry and gave him the title, "Defender of the Faith," still borne by British sovereigns.

One chief point of difference between the church of Rome and the Protestants was the use of the Bible. The Roman Catholic church held that the Bible was for the priests and that they should interpret it for the people. Very few people could repeat more of the Scriptures than the Ten Commandments and the Lord's Prayer. The Protestants thought that the Scriptures should be translated into the language of the people so that every man might learn to read for himself. Wycliffe's Bible had never been openly used in England, and at any rate the language had so changed by the time of Henry VIII that it could not be easily understood. Copies of it in manuscript were in existence and highly prized by the owners.

Even early in the reign of Henry VIII there were a few Protestants in England, mostly poor tailors, shoemakers, and tradesmen. When the New Learning spread to Oxford University and young men learned Greek, many began to study the Bible.

William Tyndall was one of these, and the ambition of his life was to translate the Holy Scriptures into English. He was poor but determined. Going to London, he was protected by a friendly merchant. Later, to avoid persecution, he went to the continent, and from Antwerp, he sent thousands of English



A CHAINED BIBLE AT ST. PAUL'S.

Testaments to London to be spread about the country. On one occasion the bishops made a bonfire of a pile of these Testaments in London, and Cardinal Wolsey led the procession of thirty-six bishops and abbots, and scores of priests, who took part in the burning.

The king probably did not wish to persecute his subjects for their religion, but the bishops were eager

to stamp out heresy. The bishops of the Roman Catholic church declared that the English translations of the Scriptures were inaccurate, and to own a Testament or a Bible printed in English was heresy of the worst kind. So it sometimes happened that those who had possession of these Testaments were burned at the stake. But Henry was impartial. If Protestants were burned as heretics, Roman Catholics were beheaded for refusing to acknowledge him as Supreme Head of the church.

After Henry VIII broke with Rome, he was much under the influence of Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, and it was decided to have the Bible translated into English. The bishops were asked to do it, but they only delayed the work with vain excuses. Miles Coverdale was then sent to the continent, and with Tyndall's aid soon had a complete translation in English. When printed, a copy was set up in every church and chained to a desk where all might read it. At a later date the king took this privilege from women and ignorant men because he learned that some read only to jangle with their companions and make much noise with little learning.

115. The Six Articles. — Although the king had allowed the Bible to be translated, he had no notion of allowing men to form their own opinions about it. No doubt the translation of the Bible, more than anything else, made England a Protestant country, and if Henry VIII had been a young man when the Bible was set up in the churches, it is quite likely that he

would have lived to see his people become Protestants. But as yet the English church was to remain very much like the church of Rome, except that its head was the king instead of the Pope.



THE RACK.

Nothing shows this more clearly than the "Six Articles," an act passed by Parliament in 1539. Article I declared that the bread and wine used in the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper was no longer bread and wine after it received the priest's blessing, but that it was the real body and blood of Christ. This is called the doctrine of *transubstantiation*. Article II declared that the communion need not consist of both bread and wine, but that bread alone was sufficient. Article III

"Six
Articles,"
1539

declared that priests might not have wives. Article IV declared that one who vowed himself to the church could never be released from his vows. Article V declared that private masses were legal. Article VI declared that confession of sins to a priest was right and necessary.

Any person who spoke against Article I was to be burnt; whoever spoke against the others was to be fined, and if the offence was repeated, then hanged. Archbishop Cranmer, who was married, had to put away his wife, while Bishop Latimer, the most popular preacher in England, gave up his office because he did not agree with some of the articles. Those who suffered under the "Six Articles" called them the "Whip with Six Strings."

116. **Scotland.** — When Margaret, the daughter of Henry VII, was married to James IV of Scotland, it seemed that peace would be secured between the two peoples. But the Scots were yet so much under the influence of France that they were unable to see the advantages of a strong alliance with England, and during the French war in 1513 James IV crossed the Border with a large army. He was routed and slain

Flodden Field, at Flodden Field by the Earl of Surrey.

1513

When Henry VIII broke with the Pope, the war was begun again by James V. The English made raids into Scotland, and the Scots made raids into Solway Moss, England. In 1542 a Scottish army of ten thousand lost itself south of the Border at

1542 Solway Moss and was defeated and captured. This

so disheartened James V that he died just as news came of the birth of his daughter, who afterwards became Mary Queen of Scots.

117. **Death of Henry VIII.** — Although the king had married Anne of Cleves, he soon divorced her and married Catherine Howard. She was beheaded on a charge of misconduct, and Henry married a widow, Catherine Parr, who outlived him.

Towards the end of his reign the king grew less and less like the merry "King Hal" who had won the people forty years before. The many ^{Death of} Henry VIII cruel executions and the severe laws about religion made the love of the people grow cold. The king became so heavy and diseased that he could walk only with help. He died in 1547, leaving the crown first to his son Edward and his heirs, next to the princess Mary, and then to the princess Elizabeth. In the hope that civil war might be avoided, Parliament had passed an act giving the king power to will the crown in this way. The crown did descend in the way that Henry wished.

SECTION 3. EDWARD VI, 1547-1553

118. **Somerset and Scotland.** — The young king was but nine years of age at his father's death. The will of Henry VIII gave accurate instructions as to the government of the country, an important part being given to the Earl of Somerset, uncle of Edward VI. It was not the plan of Henry VIII

that any one noble should have too much power while the boy-king was under age, but Somerset soon secured control of the Council, and aided by Archbishop Cranmer began to make great changes.

One part of Somerset's policy was to force the Scots to carry out a marriage treaty whereby Prince ^{Pinkie} Edward was to marry Mary of Scotland. ^{Cleugh, 1547} Perhaps the marriage might have been arranged by a man of tact, but Somerset's plan was the invasion of Scotland. Crossing the Border with a large army made up largely of hired troops, Somerset slaughtered more than ten thousand Scots at Pinkie Cleugh. But as the Scots sent their young queen to France, where she married the Dauphin, the English won no real advantage.

119. **England leans towards Protestantism.** — Henry VIII had broken with the Pope and set up English Bibles in the churches, but otherwise the worship was little changed from that of the Roman Catholic church. Somerset was now prepared to make changes that would favour the Protestants, and Edward VI gave him every encouragement.

The Six Articles were repealed and such changes made in the form of worship as robbed it of its old forms and ceremonies. In an age when few people could read, pictures illustrating Bible stories and figures of saints and apostles, either painted on the church walls or represented in stained-glass windows, taught Scripture truths in a way that all could understand. The Protestants looked upon these pictures

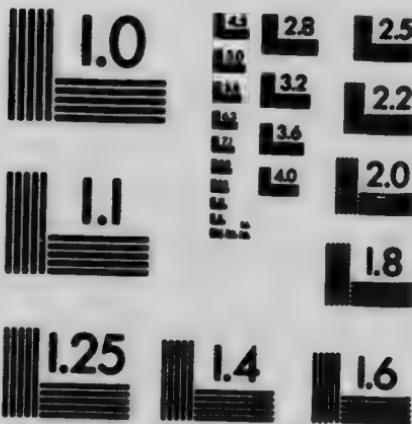
with the same horror as upon the images. Orders were given to have the churches whitewashed and the coloured glass torn out. All images and crosses were removed. The gorgeous robes were no longer worn by the priests. The costly jewels and other church ornaments were seized for the crown, while the silver and gold plate of cathedral churches was melted into coin. Even costly marble baptismal fonts were used as watering-troughs for horses. In short, everything connected with the church service that was showy or rich was laid aside.

Some of this church property was used by Edward VI to found schools. The Blue-Coat School, which was recently removed from London, dates from this period. Vast sums of the church money were taken by Somerset for his own use, especially in the construction of Somerset House.

120. The Labourers and Sheep Farming.— During the century and a half from the Peasants' Revolt to the death of Henry VIII the lowest classes had made some progress. There were no longer any slaves. Even the humblest peasant received money wages. He usually had a small cottage where he lived rent free and raised his own vegetables. Often he kept a cow and perhaps some swine upon the commons or unfenced land belonging to the estate upon which he lived. If his wage was but three or four pennies a day, each penny would buy as much as twelve pennies buy to-day.



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Before the middle of the sixteenth century English farmers found out that it was much more profitable to produce wool than to raise grain. In those days trade was very rude and simple. No king wished to see grain sent out of his kingdom, for fear of famine. But wool when packed in great bales was easily exported. English wool was highly prized for its fineness and found a ready market in Flanders.

When implements were rude, many men were needed to cultivate a large farm, but one man and ^{Sheep} _{farming} a dog could herd a thousand sheep upon the same land. In this way thousands of labourers were thrown out of work. As the English towns had not yet begun to manufacture for other nations, and as English seamen had done little more than make a beginning in foreign trade, the poor labourer could hardly become either a citizen of a town or a sailor.

121. The Idle become Beggars and Thieves.—To make matters worse, the landowners began to enclose the commons, where the peasants' cows had pastured. Every acre was needed for the thousands and thousands of sheep. Before Henry VIII took away the abbey lands, many labourers found work there. Fountain Abbey had 2356 cattle, 1326 sheep, 86 horses, 79 swine, and 391 quarters of wheat, oats, rye, and barley. The new owners of abbey lands turned them mostly into sheep farms. In the old days the poor had often been fed from the abbeys. The new owners were lords and rich mer-

chants, who had little charity for the unfortunate. So it came about that thousands of poor men, often with their wives and families, had to wander about the country working a day here and a day there, sleeping by the roadside, begging on the highways, stealing when pinched by hunger, robbing travellers of their money, and often committing murder to hide the robbery.

Beggars
throng every
highway



LADIES' DRESSES, 1535-1545.

Henry VIII passed laws to compel the landowners to raise grain instead of wool, and to prevent them from enclosing the commons. But no farmer would raise grain when wool gave twice the profit. To add to the distress of the poor they found that although they must work for the old wages, if they got work at all, yet their money would not buy as much food as in the past. This was largely because the

governments of Henry VIII and Edward VI coined base metal into money. At one time the silver was ^{Coinage debased} more than half lead, and of course a shilling coin with sixpence of silver in it would buy only sixpence worth of food. The kings made a profit because £50,000 of silver made £100,000 of money, but the people had to lose the difference.

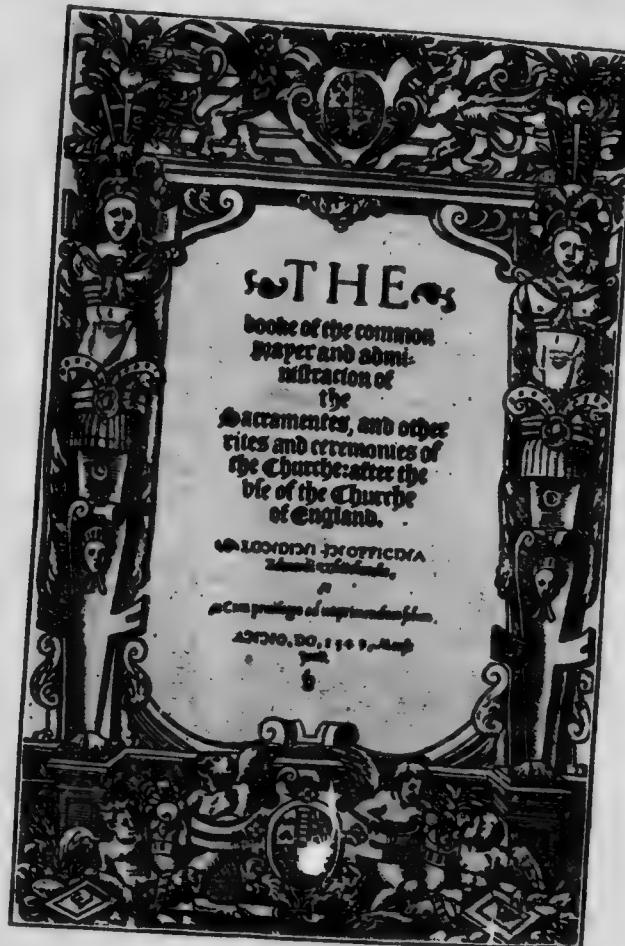
During the time of Henry VIII, such mild punishments as cutting off ears were common, but by the time of Edward VI the vagabonds had become so numerous that very severe laws were passed. A beggar, if able to work, might be branded with V (Vagabond) on his breast. He then became a slave for two years, and if he tried to escape, he was branded with S (Slave) on the forehead or cheek. He might even be hanged.

122. The English Prayer-book. — In 1549 Parliament authorised a prayer-book and made it lawful ^{Roman Catholics persecuted} for the clergy to have wives. In 1552 the Prayer-book was revised and made much as it is to-day, although some slight changes were afterwards made by Elizabeth. Roman Catholics who refused to use the new form of worship were fined, and two bishops, Gardiner and Bonner, were sent to prison.

Forty-two articles of religion were adopted as containing the creed or belief of the English church.

^{Forty-two articles} These religious changes, and especially the preparation of the Prayer-book, were directed by Archbishop Cranmer.

123. Ket's Rebellion and Fall of Somerset, 1549.— Somerset was too easy a ruler to hold power during a time of great changes. The people outside of Lon-



TITLE-PAGE OF THE FIRST EPISCOPAL PRAYER-BOOK.

don and the large towns were not Protestants; and although they were well content to see the English church freed from the control of the Pope, they had

no wish for any great changes in the form of worship. The labour troubles, the impure silver money, the high taxes, and the religious changes together led to a rebellion headed by Ket, a Norfolk tanner. The rising was crushed by Lord Warwick, who afterwards became Earl of Northumberland. Somerset was forced to resign, and three years later Northumberland had him executed.

124. Northumberland and Lady Jane Grey.—Northumberland had no religious principles, but he favoured the Protestants in order to gain the good-will of the young king. As Edward grew towards manhood it was seen that he was consumptive, and Northumberland persuaded him that if Mary, the daughter of Catherine of Aragon, became queen, she would undo the Protestant Reformation in England. Edward was easily persuaded, and agreed to will the crown to Jane Grey, who was a granddaughter of Mary, sister of Henry VIII. Lady Jane Grey was married to Northumberland's son, and the ambitious father hoped in this way to secure a king's power. The judges at first declared the young king had no power to alter the succession, but in the end they gave way, and the will was made under the Great Seal. Shortly afterwards Edward VI died, and Lady Jane Grey was crowned.

SECTION 4. MARY I, 1553-1558

125. Mary's Early Life and Accession.—The daughter of Catherine of Aragon deserves our pity even

if many of her acts reflect discredit upon her reign. Scarcely any princess has ever passed a sadder life. As a little maid of three years she was looked upon as the future queen of England and given a royal palace, where, as the years went on, she practised diligently to prepare for her future greatness. Accomplishments suitable for one of her high rank, such as music and dancing, were carefully cultivated. She was betrothed to her cousin, the Emperor Charles V, and the proudest nobles in England paid her homage on bended knee. King Henry's divorce from Catherine of Aragon took away Mary's rank and her prospects of a crown. She was forbidden by her father to use the title "princess." Worse still, she was separated from her mother. Not even when Queen Catherine was dying would Henry VIII allow Mary to visit her.

Upon several occasions Mary's life was in danger because she was the natural centre of plots made by her father's enemies. During the reign of



MARY I.

Edward VI, she barely escaped death at the hands of unworthy Protestants such as Northumberland. And yet, through all her dangers, Mary retained the affection of the English people, who could not forget the treatment given her mother. So it was not at all strange that Northumberland's plan to make a queen of Lady Jane Grey should have miscarried.

In the first place, Mary escaped to her friends before Northumberland could seize her and shut her

Northumber-
land executed in the Tower, as he had hoped to do.

Many of the Council who had sworn to stand by Jane Grey were really for Queen Mary, and in eleven days London welcomed the rightful queen. Northumberland, whose only desire was to save his own head, like a base coward threw up his cap and shouted for Mary. His execution followed in a few days, and on the scaffold he professed to die a Roman Catholic, although he had just plotted to keep Mary from the throne for the sake of the Protestant cause. The Lady Jane Grey, who had never wished to wear the crown, was imprisoned in the Tower, as was also her young husband.

126. Religious Changes.—Queen Mary was naturally opposed to the changes in religion made during her brother's reign. Her first Parliament restored the mass and declared that the clergy must not have wives. Mary would have restored the church lands and the abbeys, but Parliament refused even to discuss the matter. England was still under an interdict of the Pope, issued when Henry VIII divorced

Queen Catherine. Mary hoped to have this removed and the Pope's authority again recognised. Cardinal Pole came to England as the Pope's legate.

Parliament voted to bow again to the authority of Rome, and the members fell upon their knees and were absolved by Pole. But very few Englishmen had any desire that the Pope should again meddle with English affairs, or that English wealth should ever again flow towards Rome.

127. Philip of Spain.—Although Charles V of Spain did not carry out the contract to marry his cousin, Mary of England, he had a son Philip now twenty-five years old, and eleven years younger than the English queen. A union with England was desired by Spain, but disliked by almost every Englishman. The queen was passionately anxious to marry her kinsman Philip and cement a union with her mother's people.

So strong was the feeling in England when the marriage was first thought of, that Sir Thomas Wyatt raised a serious rebellion. Even the train-
Wyatt's rebellion
bands of London deserted to join his forces. Nothing but the queen's bravery and manlike courage saved her from defeat. She personally called upon the citizens of London to remain loyal. They did so, and the brave and scholarly Wyatt was lost. On the plea that the rebellion had been caused by the queen's leniency towards her enemies, Lady Jane Grey and her husband were now put to death, and the Princess Elizabeth shut up in the Tower.

Authority of
Pope again
recognised

Lady Jane
Grey exe-
cuted

Parliament was opposed to the queen's marriage with Philip because they feared a closer union with Spain, and they had no desire to be mixed up in European wars. But after a very careful agreement that Philip was to give no offices to Spaniards, nor have any authority in England if Mary died, Parlia-



EXECUTION OF LADY JANE GREY.

ment gave way. Philip came to England and won some popularity by a free use of Spanish gold. The marriage was celebrated with great ceremony. Shortly afterwards Mary's health failed, and Philip returned to Spain. He seems to have cared very little for the bride who had once been betrothed to his father. He visited England again only once, when he came to

obtain Mary's support in a war against France. English men and English money were wasted in France, and Calais, the last English possession on ^{Calais lost.} the continent, was lost. Mary felt this so ¹⁵⁵⁸ keenly that she said the word "Calais" would be found written on her heart when she was dead.

128. Persecution of Protestants. — In this age we all believe that men and women should be free to worship as they choose. Christians, Jews, Mahometans, or Buddhists might erect churches in any part of the British Empire and the law would protect them in their worship. But this is not the case in all countries of the world, nor has it always been the case in Britain. Henry VIII had persecuted both Protestants and Roman Catholics. Under Edward VI many who were suspected of leaning towards Rome were fined and imprisoned. We may think this very cruel, but in that age it was believed to be right. Queen Mary allowed the Protestants to be persecuted so severely that she has been named "Bloody Mary." ^{Protestant martyrs} So bitter was her hatred against the heretics that the Pope and her husband, Philip, cautioned her to use moderation. The poor queen believed she was acting for the best, and thought that a man might better die, than live a heretic. It is said that nearly three hundred men and women were burned at the stake in three years. Bishops Latimer and Ridley and Archbishop Cranmer were among the ^{Cranmer burned} most noted of the martyrs. The Queen's Council, and particularly Bishops Gardiner and Bon-

ner, must take a large share of the blame for these cruelties. Fortunately for England the persecutions were cut short by the death of Mary in 1558.

SECTION 5. ELIZABETH, 1558-1603

129. Difficult Position of Elizabeth. — Scarcely had Queen Mary breathed her last when the bells broke forth into a joyous peal of welcome for her successor. The Princess Elizabeth was at Hatfield House when the news came of Mary's death. "It is the Lord's doing, and marvellous in our eyes," exclaimed Elizabeth. From this time on for forty-five years this woman was to be the almost absolute ruler of England. She had been taught by bitter experience that the path to a throne may have dangerous pitfalls; and the time she had spent in the Tower as a prisoner may have prepared her for many future difficulties.

England was far from prosperous. The last years ^{England very poor} of Mary's reign were years of famine and plague. The war with France had drained the country, and the late queen was paying fourteen and fifteen per cent. interest on loans from Flemish Jews. In her anxiety to restore the church property, Queen Mary had starved the army and navy and had neglected the coast fortresses built by her father. In addition she had given her husband Philip vast sums for his wars. Calais was lost, and the English of that age believed its possession necessary to guard them against France. But the young queen's

greatest problem was the question of religion. The burnings and other persecutions were weakening the people by making a man his neighbour's enemy.

130. The Young Queen's Policy.—During her sister's reign, Elizabeth had outwardly conformed to the rites of the church of Rome.

As soon as she became queen she issued orders that no man was to preach without a license, but she took no immediate steps to change the form of worship. She desired to be crowned by a bishop of the Roman Catholic church, and after some difficulty

one was found who performed the ceremony. But Elizabeth was a true enough daughter of Henry VIII to dislike the Pope's interference with the English church, and on this point, no doubt, the majority of her subjects agreed with her. With the views of the extreme Protestants she had no sympathy, but it was soon known that the authority of the Pope would no longer be recognised, and that the changes in the worship would favour the moderate Protestants.

Elizabeth
crowned by
Roman Cath-
olic bishop



QUEEN ELIZABETH.

The first Parliament passed an Act of Uniformity which declared that all must worship after one form.

Act of Uni-formity, 1559 The queen was made supreme governor of the church, and a new translation of the Bible was authorised. The bishops as a body refused to take the new oath which would transfer their allegiance from the Pope to the queen, but only about two hundred of the clergy made any objections.

Dr. Parker, who for safety had lived in exile during Mary's reign, was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and under his direction, the Prayer-book for the English church was arranged almost as it is to-day. Elizabeth appointed six new Protestant peers to the House of Lords, and her closest advisers, of whom Lord Burleigh was chief, were strongly Protestant. She gave secret aid to the Flemish Protestants, who were under the tyranny of Spain, and also to the Huguenots or French Protestants, who were struggling for freedom.

131. Mary Queen of Scots.—Henry VIII had planned to unite his son to the daughter of James V of Scotland and thus bring about a permanent union between the two kingdoms. But the affair was badly managed, and the Scots sent the young princess to France, where she was married to the Dauphin. The Dauphin became king in 1559, and the Queen of Scotland was now also Queen of France. In a few months, however, her young husband died, and the widowed queen went back to Scotland, where her

youth and beauty won over the stern followers of John Knox, the great Scottish reformer. Mary was a Roman Catholic, but her promise of toleration united the people in her favour. Her presence in Scotland with her people at her feet was very disquieting to Elizabeth. To understand this you need only remember that very few Roman Catholics of Europe recognised the marriage of Henry VIII and

Mary's claim
to crown of
England Anne Boleyn
as legal, and
if the mar-
riage was illegal, then
Elizabeth was not born

in lawful wedlock, and therefore was not the rightful heir to the crown. The next heir was Mary of Scotland, and she had already, while in France, assumed the royal coat of arms belonging to an English sovereign. Very soon after her return to Scotland Queen Mary married her cousin Henry Mary's
marriage Stuart, who was known as Lord Darnley. Now Henry Stuart himself had some claim to the crown of England, and his marriage with the Scottish queen made her yet more dangerous to Elizabeth. In a year news came to Elizabeth that a son was born to Queen Mary. This son was also a rival of England's queen, but she showed a friendly spirit,



MARY STUART.

acted as godmother to the young prince, and sent him a present of a gold baptismal font.

Darnley turned out to be a vicious, insolent husband, quite unworthy of his beautiful wife, and in a



JOHN KNOX LECTURING QUEEN MARY.

short time he was mysteriously murdered, perhaps Darnley's with Queen Mary's approval. At any rate murder, 1567 she soon afterwards married the Earl of Bothwell, who was known to have had some part in Darnley's death. Her people now rose in rebellion, and after defeating her in battle, forced her to resign her crown to her infant son and submit to imprison-

ment. She had a romantic escape, and after another defeat fled across the Border into England, and threw herself on the mercy of Elizabeth. She asked either to be restored to her throne or allowed to go to France. Elizabeth could not restore her to the throne of Scotland without some investigation into her past conduct, and she thought it would be unwise to allow one, who had claimed her own crown, to become the centre of French plots against England. So Mary was kept in an English castle and treated as a guest, but watched as closely as a state prisoner.

Mary's youth, beauty, and misfortunes aroused the sympathy of many Roman Catholics in England, and in 1569 the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland headed a rising of some six thousand peasants in the north of England. ^{Rebellion of northern earls, 1569} The Reformation had never made much progress in this part of England, and these poor people thought it would be only right to dethrone Elizabeth and put in her place a queen who would restore the old religion. Durham was taken and a mass celebrated in its fine old cathedral. Elizabeth's soldiers were soon upon the rebels. The two noble earls escaped over the Border into Scotland, and the poor ignorant countryfolk were hanged by hundreds.

132. The Puritans. — The Act of Uniformity and the compulsory use of the Prayer-book pressed sorely upon that class of the queen's subjects known as Puritans. They were given this name because they

desired the form of worship to be still further purified from what they believed to be the errors of the church of Rome. They were extreme Protestants and took special objection to the pomp and ceremony which were retained in the church service. They objected to the stained-glass windows, to the surplice of the priest, to giving a ring in marriage, to the sign of the cross in baptism, to kneeling to receive communion, and to many other ceremonies. They looked upon these as "relics of popery," and would agree to no form or ritual that could not be proved according to Scripture. They also objected to the great powers given to bishops and other church officers and to the enormous revenues attached to some clerical positions.

Puritans object to ceremony

During the early years of Elizabeth's reign the Puritans were given much freedom, and hundreds of their clergy conducted the church service very much after their own wishes. This led to great diversity of form and no doubt to some abuses, because sometimes Puritanism was made a cloak for license and disorder. So long as England lay under the danger of a great war with the Catholic powers of Europe, the Puritans were treated with forbearance, because they were strongly Protestant. But as Elizabeth grew stronger and better able to assume a bold tone towards her enemies, she gradually asserted her authority to bring the church worship to a uniform standard.

A court called the Court of High Commission, composed chiefly of bishops, was given great power over

church affairs. Clergy who refused to obey the strict letter of the law regarding the service were turned out of their churches, and in some cases fined and put in prison. The people who refused to attend church were fined. Hundreds of the Puritans were imprisoned. Some were tortured to force them to make confessions. A few were burned for holding obstinately to their views, and denying the right of the queen to supreme power over the church.

Court of High
Commission,
1583

133. Elizabeth and the Roman Catholics. — During the first ten years of Elizabeth's reign, very few Roman Catholics were persecuted for religion. In many cases masses were held in private houses. But as time went on, there was much excitement about plots among Roman Catholics, in England and outside of England, to overthrow Elizabeth and put Mary Queen of Scots in her place. These plots naturally led to a close watch over Roman Catholic families, and to a vigorous attempt to make them conform to the established worship. Heavy fines even up to £20 a month were imposed for non-attendance at church. In 1577 a seminary priest, named Cuthbert Mayne, was executed because he held that English Catholics would be right in rising to assist any foreign power to restore the Pope's authority in England. In 1580 Jesuit priests came over from the continent to win converts for the church of Rome. They were imprisoned, tortured, and in some cases put to death. Elizabeth's government

Catholics
fined

claimed to be justified in doing this because an act had been passed commanding all these priests to leave the country, and because they were said to be concerned in plots to depose Elizabeth. They came into the country under various disguises, some as soldiers, some as Protestant clergymen, and some as gay young gentlemen, and one of their objects was to persuade Roman Catholics that they owed no allegiance to the heretic queen.

The coming of the Armada afterwards, showed that the Roman Catholics in England were loyal subjects and ready to fight, side by side with Protestants, for queen and country. But in passing judgment upon Elizabeth and her ministers for religious persecution, we must remember that the Protestants of that time believed themselves to be

Massacre of St. Bartholomew, 1572 in real danger, and certainly not without some reason. In 1570 the Pope had issued a bull deposing Elizabeth and freeing her Roman Catholic subjects from all obligations to her. In 1572 occurred the Massacre of St. Bartholomew, when thirty thousand French Protestants, men, women, and children, were butchered in cold blood. The truth is that the time had not yet come when any religious body was prepared to grant freedom of worship to those who held a different belief. It was a part of every man's religion to make his neighbour agree with him and to persecute him until he did agree.

134. The Founders of British Commerce.—We all know that to-day the British flag floats on every

sea, and that the commerce of Britain is much greater than that of any other country. But perhaps we do not always remember the brave and daring Englishmen who first carried our flag into unknown seas, and laid the foundation of our present trade. While some credit is due to Henry VIII for building the nucleus of a fleet, it was during the reign of Elizabeth that England really began to take an interest in foreign trade and to make the ocean her home.

How this came about must be explained. Spain was the greatest power in the world at that time, and her strength was largely owing to her enterprise on the seas, and especially to <sup>Spain power-
ful and
wealthy</sup> her discoveries and conquests in America.

The vast wealth of the mines of Mexico and Peru gave the Spanish king a revenue that enabled him to carry out many great schemes. It is quite true that the ease with which the Spaniards gained wealth from America made them indolent, and caused them to neglect their own fertile farms; but while the wealth was being won, and settlements opened up in the New World, Spain made great progress.

Now the Spaniards claimed for themselves not only Mexico and the places where they had settled, but the whole of America, and they ^{Spanish claims} treated Englishmen who ventured into those western seas as intruders and robbers, who deserved any punishment they chose to inflict. Lord Burleigh has left an official statement that in the single year of

1562 twenty-six Englishmen were burned at the stake in Spain. But the profits of the trade were so great that Englishmen took the risks and defied Spanish cruelty to the Spaniards. The cruelties practised by Spain towards these seamen made the English hate Spaniards, and gave them another reason for interfering with their trade in America. The queen encouraged among her seamen a desire to discover new lands, and this had a good effect on the spirits of bold men. Nor must we forget that ever since the time of Columbus every great navigator cherished a hope of finding a short path to China by sailing west from Europe. So we see that desire for great wealth, hatred of Spain, a hope of new discoveries, and an ambition to reach China by some short route all united in attracting courageous men to a sea-faring life.

135. Sir John Hawkins.—John Hawkins was a young Devonshire seaman, thirty years of age at Elizabeth's accession. His father before him was a seaman, and had brought over the king of Brazil on a visit to Henry VIII. Young John had built up a good trade with the Spaniards in the Canaries, and had heard a great deal from them about the openings for trade in the West Indies.

The native Indian races of those islands had died off under civilisation and the lash of Spanish masters, and the Spaniards needed men to cultivate the slave trade the plantations. The western coast of Africa was inhabited by negro tribes who were engaged in constant warfare, and thousands of them,

taken prisoners, were offered up as sacrifices every year. "Why," said Hawkins, "should I not buy a load of these prisoners from the native chiefs, and sell them to the Spaniards in the Indies?"

Hawkins returned to London, formed a company, fitted out three vessels, and took a cargo of three hundred negroes to St. Domingo. The planters bought them, and Hawkins invested his profits in a cargo of hides, and sent them to Spain by an agent. The hides were confiscated by the Inquisition on the ground that Hawkins had no right to trade in the Indies. Hawkins now vowed vengeance. He formed a new company for another trip. The queen took shares and lent him a large ship. He set out in 1564, gathered a cargo of four hundred blacks, and crossed to the West Indies. The planters wanted to buy, but the governor had strict orders from Spain to prevent Hawkins from landing. But Hawkins was a man of determination; he landed his men, and forced the governor to give way. After this fashion he got rid of his negroes. He then explored many of the islands, and returned home by way of Newfoundland, where the crew feasted on fresh cod. The queen and other shareholders made a profit of almost seventy-five per cent. Hawkins made a third voyage in company with his cousin, Francis Drake, in 1567, but they had little success and lost their cargo. From this time on Hawkins, now Sir John Hawkins, was manager of the queen's dock-yard, and it was under his supervision that were built

the tight little crafts which scattered the Spanish Armada.

136. Sir Martin Frobisher.—Frobisher made many voyages to the coasts of North America, Newfoundland, and Greenland. His ambition was to discover a short passage to China. He lived to help in the fight with the Armada, and died in 1594.

137. Sir Walter Raleigh and Sir Humphrey Gilbert.—Raleigh was a Devonshire man who saw much service as a soldier in France and the Netherlands. He won Elizabeth's favour, so the story goes, by spreading his cloak over a mud-hole that lay in her path. At any rate, he enjoyed the queen's good-will, and she gave him a valuable office in Ireland, besides a monopoly for the sale of wine in England. He Settlement in Virginia planted a settlement in America, and named it Virginia, after the virgin queen. He had great faith in the future of England as a sea-power, and upon one occasion wrote: "Whosoever commands the sea commands the trade; whosoever commands the trade of the world commands the riches of the world, and consequently the world itself." Raleigh himself never visited Virginia, but sent there instead his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert. The settlement did not prosper. Sir Humphrey afterwards perished near the coast of America in a small vessel called the *Squirrel*. His companions in another vessel related that a short time before his ship went down he was heard cheering his men with the assurance that, "Heaven is as near by sea as by land."

Raleigh lost the queen's favour because he married one of her maids of honour without her leave. The queen shut him up in the Tower, but afterwards forgave him, and he fought as a private against the Armada.



SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

138. **Sir Francis Drake.** — The name of Drake will always be a leading one among the seamen of the Elizabethan age. He was born in Devon, and was the son of a clergyman. We have seen how he made a trip with Hawkins to capture slaves. That single experience was enough, and Drake seems to have

decided that he would ease the Spaniards of their gold and silver without giving them negroes in return.

Drake knew that Philip of Spain had his treasures carried over the Isthmus from Panama on mules. In

<sup>Drake's
second
voyage</sup> 1572 he set out, landed at the Isthmus, and waylaid the mule train. The silver was

buried because too heavy to carry to the coast, but he secured a rich booty in gold, diamonds, rubies, and other precious stones. He went home and prepared for a greater undertaking.

His plan now was nothing less than a dash into the waters of the Pacific by way of the Straits of

<sup>His bold
plan</sup> Magellan. In this way he would take the enemy unawares, and reach the very centre

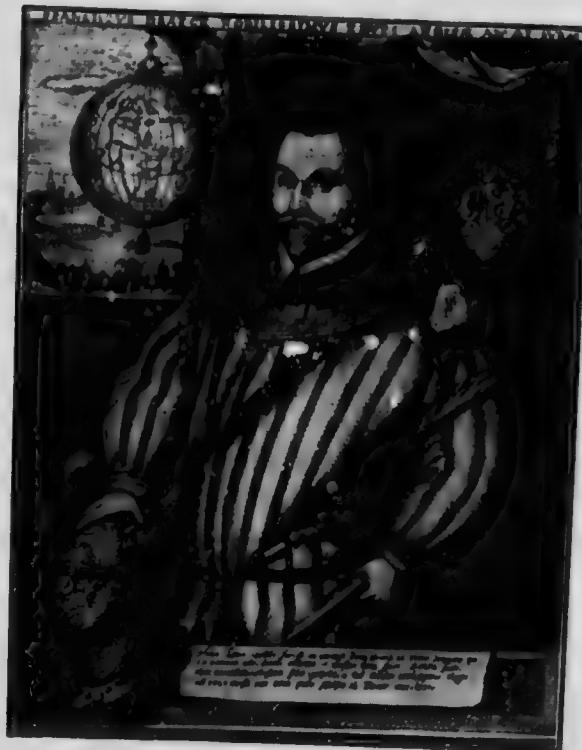
of Spain's fabulous wealth. Elizabeth gave secret aid. His largest ship was the *Golden Hinde* of 120

<sup>Drake sails,
1577</sup> tons. Four smaller boats made up the fleet.

The crews numbered 160 all told. In 1577 they left Plymouth, sailed south past Cape de Verde Islands, crossed the Atlantic, and sighted the coast of South America near the mouth of the Plate River. The crew of one boat deserted, and her commander was captured and executed; one ship was abandoned as too small to pass the straits, one was lost, and another got separated from Drake and returned to England. After a terrible passage the *Golden Hinde*

<sup>The Pata-
gonians</sup> passed the straits. Drake describes the Patagonians as a hardy race, living naked amidst the ice and snow. He was now alone in the Pacific with the *Golden Hinde*. They sailed north for

Valparaiso, where they came upon a Spanish galleon with four hundred pounds of gold. They then made for Tarapaca, where the Spaniards brought their silver from Peru to ship to Panama. They ^{A rich} ~~capture~~ were not expected, and found the silver ingots piled on



SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.

the quay with the mule-drivers asleep beside them. Another mule train arrived with more ingots, and the silver, worth half a million ducats, was soon on board the *Golden Hinde*. They next stopped at Arica, where they seized fifty bars of silver, and then sailed

for Lima, where they expected the treasure ship. They were too late. The ship had just sailed for Panama with the year's produce of the mines on board. They learned that her cargo was gold and rubies and her ballast silver. Away went the *Golden Hinde* in pursuit, and when eight hundred miles to the north, the treasure ship was sighted and was soon in their power. The booty was enormous. Besides

Captures a
whole cargo
of gold and
silver hundreds of pounds of gold, rubies, emeralds, and diamonds, they took from her hold twenty tons of silver and thirteen chests of silver coins. The whole probably amounted to between two and three million ducats.

Drake now sailed north, stayed some time on the coast of California, and then struck boldly across the Pacific for the East Indies. There the ship was docked and her bottom scraped. She set sail and soon struck a reef. All seemed lost. But by throwing over eight tons of spices and their cannon they lightened the ship so that she cleared the reef. She now crossed the Indian Ocean, rounded the Cape of

Completes
the trip
around the
world Good Hope, touched at Sierra Leone for water, and anchored in Plymouth harbour after an absence of nearly three years.

Philip was furious and demanded the treasure. Elizabeth temporised. She allowed Drake and his crew liberal shares. She accepted a very liberal share for herself, and the rest was stored in the Tower until she and Philip should have a settlement. It is needless to say that Philip never saw any of the treasure,

Drake became a hero. Elizabeth attended a great banquet on board the *Golden Hinde* and knighted the gallant captain. England and Spain were at peace in name, but were really at war, ^{Drake knighted} and Elizabeth was simply teaching Philip that her subjects could take care of themselves.

After the defeat of the Armada, Drake led in many attacks on the Spaniards. In 1592 he sacked Corunna and tried to take Lisbon. He died at sea in 1595, and when the Spaniards ^{Death in 1595} at Panama heard of his end, they held a two-days' jubilee.

139. Death of Mary of Scotland. — So long as Queen Mary lived she naturally kept planning to escape. In 1586 a plot was formed by Anthony Babington to murder Elizabeth and make ^{Babington's plot, 1586} Mary queen. The plot was discovered by Walsingham, one of Elizabeth's Secretaries of State, who had a small army of spies throughout England, Scotland, France, and Spain. It has never been proved that Mary agreed to the murder of Elizabeth, but she admitted that she planned to escape. She was tried by a council of peers, found guilty, and sentenced to die. For a long time Elizabeth refused to sign the death-warrant. When she did sign it, her ministers, led by Cecil, immediately put it into execution without her express orders. Then when news came of Mary's death, Elizabeth flew into a great rage and said she had never intended to have the Scottish queen executed. She imprisoned Davison, Walsingham's

colleague as Secretary of State, to whom she had entrusted the warrant, and fined him £10,000.

The Scottish king, James VI, talked a great deal in a noisy fashion when news came of his mother's death, but Elizabeth sent him £4000, and told him it was "a dreadful mistak." Elizabeth also sent liberal gifts of money to several Scottish lords who had influence with their king. The English queen has been much blamed for her cousin's death, but the chief blame, if blame there be, must rest on her ministers and her Parliament, who persuaded her that her own life was unsafe while Mary lived.

140. Why Philip of Spain must fight England. — At Elizabeth's accession, Philip of Spain had shown himself friendly and had offered to cement his friendship by marriage. After some delay, Elizabeth refused, partly because she feared that an alliance with Spain would bring her the enmity of France, and partly because she knew that such a marriage would be unpopular in England. Since that time, although England and Spain had kept up a show of friendship, they were really drifting into war. Elizabeth's aid to his Protestant subjects in the Netherlands, where Sir Philip Sidney and other brave Englishmen fought for the Dutch, was a sore point with Philip. The many insults offered to Spain by Drake, Hawkins, Raleigh, and other bold English "sea-dogs" made the proud Spaniards desperately angry, and when Philip's ambassador in London told Elizabeth that matters would come to the cannon, she quietly told

him that if he used such language she would throw him into prison.

Elizabeth's persecution of the Roman Catholic priests was another thorn in Philip's flesh. He was looked upon as the European champion of the old religion, and it was the dream of his life to crush out every trace of Protestantism. This he knew could not be done while England remained a free country. The execution of Mary of Scotland removed every trace of hesitation from the mind of Philip. He could no longer pose as the firm ally and champion of the Pope, if he left unavenged the death of a queen who in the eyes of many Roman Catholics had died the death of a martyr.

141. The English Wealthy, Brave, and Confident. — But if Philip had waited thirty years to wage war against Elizabeth, and if every year of waiting had given him additional reasons for fighting, every year had also made England stronger and better prepared to meet him.



SIR WILLIAM CECIL, LORD BURLEIGH.

England can
now stand
alone

He must now fight a new England. Never has any country made more rapid progress than was made in England from 1558 to 1588. The nation had grown from childhood to a lusty manhood. The population had increased because there had been peace. The wealth of the people had multiplied many times, while the frugality of Elizabeth had left her people free from burdensome taxes. New methods of agriculture had made the land more productive. Thousands of Flemish Protestants had fled from the persecutions of Philip and established great industries for dyeing and weaving cloth in England. The discoveries of Drake, Raleigh, and Frobisher had extended commerce, and had trained as bold a race of seamen as ever hauled a rope. But strong as the nation was in men, money, and other material resources, its greatest strength was the bold, confident, and loyal spirit of the people. They had differences over religion, but they were united in a love for home and country.

142. English Hatred of Spain. — But their love of the homeland was scarcely stronger than their hatred of Spain and of everything Spanish. They remembered Philip as the cause of the loss of Calais. They knew that Englishmen captured on the high seas had

The English
are ready to
settle old
scores

suffered dreadful tortures in the Spanish Inquisition, "laden with irons and without sight of sun or moon"; and while we may think that those Englishmen who sacked Spanish treasure ships were little better than pirates, yet in the eyes of their countrymen of that day they were

heroes fighting for the honour of the virgin queen and the Protestant faith.

143. Philip's First Fleet. — It was well known in England early in 1587 that Philip was really coming. In fact, he made no secret of his preparations. Drake put to sea with a small fleet, sailed boldly into the harbour of Cadiz, and burned, sank, or destroyed more than eighty of Philip's new ships. He then captured the *St. Philip*, the largest Spanish treasure ship, laden with a cargo from the New World. This delayed the Spaniards for a full year, and that year gave England ample time for preparation.

Drake sings
the Spanish
king's beard

144. The Invincible Armada Ready. — Philip's plans for 1588 were far-reaching and complete. He had ready at Dunkirk, under the Duke of Parma, an army of 30,000 veteran troops supplied with boats for transport. These were for the actual conquest of England, and they were to be brought over, under the protection of the greatest fleet that ever Parma put to sea. So great was the fleet that the Spaniards called it the Invincible Armada. It consisted of 130 men-of-war carrying 20,000 soldiers, 8000 seamen, and 120 priests. These vessels were for the most part immense floating castles with several decks, and they mounted 2500 cannon. The great The Armada Spanish admiral, Santa Cruz, had just died and Philip thrust the supreme command upon Medina Sidonia, a grandee of the highest rank, but of very little wit and with absolutely no knowledge of either ships or war.

He protested in vain. He said he never went to sea without getting sick, and that he had never even seen the English Channel. Many of the disasters that overtook the Armada were the fruit of poor Sidonia's simplicity. He forgot to have the ships' bottoms scraped, and he put to sea with putrid water for his sailors to drink, and mouldy biscuit and half-decayed meat for their food.

145. Preparations in England. — To meet this immense fleet England had only 80 vessels and 9000 seamen. Fifty of these vessels were as small as yachts of the present day. But the country was aroused, and private enterprise supplied what was lacking in the queen's navy. The queen asked the city of London to supply 5000 men and 15 ships. They immediately equipped 10,000 men and 30 ships. In every seaport around the English coast the same wave of enthusiasm swept over the people. One

England ready for the conflict town vied with another in fitting out vessels. These vessels were small, but they sailed two feet for every one of a Spanish vessel, and were so easily managed that they could fire a shot and escape before the cumbersome vessels of the enemy could get into position. More than this, many of the English ships had guns of greater power and longer range than those of the Spaniards.

Elizabeth formed a land army at Tilbury, on the south coast, and the militia mustered in swarms. The queen herself visited this camp on horseback, wearing a corselet of steel, and made a very warlike speech.

The soldiers went wild with enthusiasm and almost prayed for a chance to fight the Spaniards. Burleigh's spies reported from Spain that it was a part of Philip's plan to carry Elizabeth in chains to Rome to have her dealt with at the pleasure of the Pope. But the Roman Catholics vied with the Protestants in loyalty. The admiral of the English fleet was Lord Howard



THE SPANISH ARMADA.

of Effingham, himself a Roman Catholic, while under him were Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher.

146. The Armada in the English Channel. — On the 29th of July the sails of the Armada were seen from the English coast, and soon the beacon fires flashed the news all over the country. The Armada a gallant sight The Armada came on in gallant style. The gallant sight stately Spanish ships were formed in a crescent stretching seven miles from horn to horn. The English allowed them to move up into the Channel,

and then with a favourable wind they slipped out of Plymouth and hung on their rear. Now began a running fight that lasted over a week. The saucy English boats could fire four shots for the Spaniards' one. They would boldly draw up under an immense Spanish galleon, fire a shot, and draw away to fire another before the unwieldy Don could get ready for action. It is said that one English vessel actually passed along the whole line of the Armada firing at each galleon in turn. Several Spanish ships were sunk and some driven on the coast.

147. The Spaniards put to Flight. — The Spaniards now anchored off Calais, and Lord Howard decided on a plan to drive them into the open sea. He therefore sent eight fire-ships among them with the tide at midnight. The Spanish soldiers cut their cables and put to sea in confusion. The English followed, and never gave up the fight until their last pound of powder was spent. By this time the Armada had passed the Straits of Dover and had left Dunkirk and Parma's thirty thousand men far in the rear. Many of the Spanish ships were captured or helpless and few of them had either ammunition or sufficient food.

148. The Retreat to Spain. — To return by the English Channel was out of the question, so the Spanish admiral decided to lead the fleet home by sailing around the north of Scotland and Ireland. But the wind and the waves could be even more destruc-

tive than the English, and thousands of Spaniards were dashed upon the rocks of the Hebrides and the Irish coast. Some were murdered by the Irish after reaching land. The following year an Englishman counted twelve hundred skeletons on a beach less than five miles long. About fifty ships and ten thousand famished, fever-stricken men reached Spain.

The joy in England over the victory knew no bounds, although the queen grumbled about the expense. A medal was struck bearing the words "Venit, vidit, fugit." (He came, he saw, he ran away.) With the defeat of the Armada the supremacy of the seas passed from Spain to England, ^{England supreme on the seas} and from that day to this no power has been able to question her rule except for a brief space when the wasteful extravagance of a Stuart king left the navy so weak that Dutch ships came up the Thames.

149. Ireland. — During the time of Edward VI and Mary, the English government had encouraged the Irish chiefs to be loyal by leaving them their lands and tribal rule, on condition that they kept their clansmen in good order, and paid a small tax to the crown in time of war. But when the Protestant government of Edward VI undertook to set aside the old religion the Irish offered stern opposition. Under Mary the old religion was restored, while two counties in the centre of Ireland, Kings and Queens, were colonised with English people and the natives exterminated.

Under Elizabeth some attempt was made to put down the Irish customs and dress, but with little O'Neill's re.
beilion, 1598 success. Finally the O'Neills raised a great rebellion in the North. Elizabeth sent her favourite, the young Earl of Essex, to crush it, but he came home without her orders, and was Death of
Essex, 1599 later put to death for attempting to seize the queen and overthrow her ministers. Lord Mountjoy succeeded Essex, and put down the rising with cruel severity, burning creps and houses. A terrible famine forced the Irish to submit, and a vigorous effort was now made to destroy the tribal system and establish English courts.

150. **The Commons and Monopolies.** — It was a custom in this age for the sovereign to grant a courtier Evils of monopolies the exclusive right to trade in some article of common use. The person having this right would take advantage of his monopoly and raise the price, thus making great profits. In many cases a monopoly would be granted by the queen on the petition of some of her maids of honour. The increasing number of such shackles on trade finally grew to Monopolies abolished, 1601 be unbearable. The right to sell such common necessities as vinegar, oil, starch, steel, and coal was each the special property of some one person. The last Parliament of Elizabeth determined to end this evil. One member indignantly asked if bread had yet been placed on the hated list. When Elizabeth saw the Commons were determined, she gracefully gave way and admitted the evil of the system.

151. Death of Elizabeth, 1603. — The rule of the virgin queen was fast drawing to a close. Her life was a lonely one; Cecil and Leicester were dead, and she mourned the fate of Essex. ^{The queen lonely} But she kept up an appearance of gaiety and danced, dressed, and went on royal progresses as before. Her people were changing and becoming more serious in tone. The open Bible was altering



GREAT SEAL OF ELIZABETH.

the very nature of thousands upon thousands of her Puritan subjects from the old pleasure-loving life to a life of earnest striving after truth and righteousness. The queen had no sympathy ^{Her people changed} with these higher ideals. She had so little religious feeling that she could not understand how the earnest Roman Catholics and Puritans were willing to die for conscience's sake. Towards the end she lost her memory, grew haggard, and wasted almost to a skeleton. She sat for days propped up with pillows and refused

to go to bed. When Cecil told her she must go to bed, she turned upon him in a rage. "Must!" she said, "is must a word to be addressed to princes? Little man, little man, thy father, if he had lived, durst not have used that word." She is said to have expressed a wish to have James VI of Scotland as her successor.

152. Character of Elizabeth. — Elizabeth was a curious mixture of good and bad, but she had a real love for England and for her people. She chose wise

The Queen
high-
tempered counsellors whom she often scolded but generally obeyed. Her ordinary conversation was set off with terrible oaths which she had probably learned from her father. She lied shamelessly when the truth would have served her much better. She had a violent temper and often boxed the ears of her maids of honour and scolded the members of the House of Commons.

Many princes wished to marry her. She encouraged them all in turn, often simply to gain time to The Queen's
suitors strengthen her government by some foreign alliance. At one time she pretended to be very much in love with Alençon, a dwarfish boy of nineteen, who was a brother of the King of France. But of all her suitors she preferred Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester, and would probably have married him when his wife died, had he not been her subject and of too low rank for a queen's consort. After the death of Leicester, she showed great fondness for the young Earl of Essex, and it is said she was never really happy after his sad death.

The great queen was very fond of dress, and at her death her wardrobe contained three thousand gowns and two hundred wigs. She had a man's love of sport, and often spent Sunday afternoon in watching a "bull-fight" or a "bear-baiting." She rode after the hounds and liked to kill the stag with her own hands. She delighted to make "royal progresses" through the country, when she would be accompanied by a brilliant suite of knights and ladies, and handsomely entertained by her nobles. These visits gave her a chance to meet her people and learn much of their condition. She was always anxious to have her people think well of her. It is said that when she passed through any crowded street and the people pressed too near, the Earl of Leicester, her master of horse, would cut them with his riding-whip. Elizabeth would say aloud: "Do not hurt my people. Spare my good people." But the next moment when the crowd would again press too close she would say in an undertone, "Cut them again, my lord, cut them again." Her meanest trait was her stinginess, but she was really frugal and felt that she was responsible for the honest use of every pound voted by Parliament. Her faults were known only to her courtiers; to the common people she was always "Good Queen Bess."

153. The Theatre and Great Writers. — During the Middle Ages, when few people could read, the priests often acted Bible stories as an easy way of teaching

their flocks. At Christmas the story would be the angels announcing the birth of Christ to the shepherds, and at Easter the Resurrection. Perhaps at some other season such subjects as Cain and Abel or Noah and the ark would be illustrated. In one of these old plays Noah is made to scold his wife because she will not enter the ark.

The plays were sometimes acted in the church or from a rude stage in the churchyard. Everything was made as plain as possible. Angels were dressed in long white robes, carried harps, and wore golden hair. At first people went to these Mystery Plays more to learn than to be amused, but by the time of Henry VIII their character had quite changed; the actors were no longer priests, nor the subjects scenes from the Bible. Music and song held an important place.

The world of Elizabeth was a new world even to those who could remember the time of Henry VIII. The new discoveries beyond the seas, the spread of learning, and the increase of riches gave the English people new ideas, and raised their thoughts to attempt things never dreamed of fifty years before. All this new life and bright faith in the future was best expressed by the poets and other writers.

It was only natural that as soon as great thoughts and noble ambitions were well expressed by the writers there would be actors ready to represent them on the stage. The mass of the people could not yet read books, but all could look on at a play acted from

a stage set up in some courtyard or public place. The things that we learn from concerts, lectures, books, and newspapers, the people of Elizabeth's day learned from the plays. Before the time of Elizabeth, plays were acted either in connection with the church, or by private parties for their own instruction and amusement. The first public theatre was opened about the middle of the queen's reign, and before its close there were eighteen in London alone.

The greatest writer of plays was William Shakespeare. He not only had the power to put his thoughts into beautiful words, but his ideas were sublime, and his knowledge of men and women greater than that of any other poet either before or since.

Even yet his plays are acted on the stage wherever the English language is spoken. German students often learn English just to be able to read Shakespeare's plays as he wrote them.

Next to Shakespeare stands Edmund Spenser, who wrote the "Faerie Queene." This poem is not read by very many people of our day, but it is highly prized by poets and students because of its beautiful music.

154. Manners and Customs. — The reign of Elizabeth was a time when great riches were often easily



WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE.

acquired. This led to lavish spending and to many changes in the customs of the people. They began

Better buildings to build better houses, and many of the fine old homes in England to-day were partly built in that period. Glass was becoming common, and people had more sunlight. They ate

Better dress more meat and spent vast sums on dress.

Parliament had to pass laws regulating the dress of the people. The nobles and ladies spent fortunes on finery, and no gentleman was properly dressed unless he wore costly velvets and lace ruffles. Wigs were worn by all who could afford

Better furniture them. Pewter dishes for the poor and silver for the rich were replacing those of wood. Houses were built with chimneys instead of with mere holes in the roof to let the smoke escape.

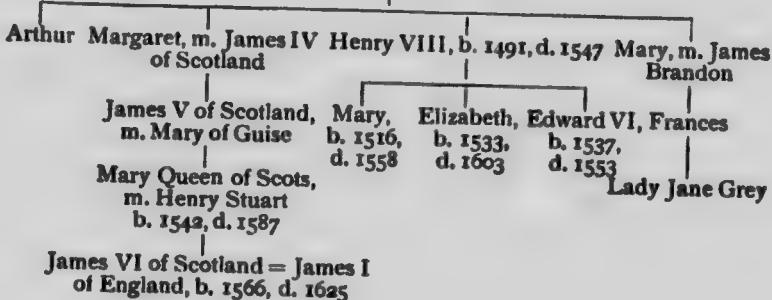
The wealthy began to use costly tapestries to adorn the bare walls. The floors were still generally covered with rushes which became very filthy. Pillows, which until now were considered fit only for sick women, came into common use. Only the queen had a coach; the common method of travel was on horseback or in sedan chairs. Wood and coal formed the fuel, but it was not lawful to burn coal in London while the Parliament met, for fear that the smoke and gas would injure the health of the peers who made up the House of Lords. The hordes of beggars so common in the time of Edward VI were no longer a danger. The nation was advancing so fast that no man had any excuse for begging. He could obtain

work in plenty on land or at sea. The queen's government adopted very wise laws making every parish responsible for its own poor. Poor-laws improved

But the greatest change that came over the people of this age was the change that came from reading the Bible. Nearly two hundred different Influence of the Bible translations appeared during the reign of Elizabeth. Very few people could read, but those who could were sure of listeners. Thousands of these poor people never saw or heard any other book. They thought over it, tried to understand it, and, as a result, it became very real to them, and entered into their everyday lives. Its language became their language and its characters their heroes.

V. TUDOR KINGS

Henry VII, b. 1456, d. 1509



CHAPTER VII

THE STUART PERIOD, 1603-1714

SECTION I. JAMES I, 1603-1625

155. King of Scotland also becomes King of England. — When Queen Elizabeth died the younger Cecil, who was prime minister, immediately took steps to secure a peaceable succession for James of Scotland. The new king made a leisurely journey of more than a month from Edinburgh to London, and during his progress he created upwards of two hundred knights.

All parties received him well. The Roman Catholics hoped he would treat them kindly for his mother's sake. The Puritans naturally hoped for favours from a king whose early Presbyterian training was almost as simple as their own. Nearly a thousand Puritan clergymen signed a petition to the king, praying that they might be allowed to omit certain of the ceremonies in the church service that were most distasteful to their views. James received the petition and arranged a conference to argue the disputed points. When the conference opened it was made plain that James simply wished to show his own learning. He abused the most learned of

the Puritans, who represented more than one-half of the English Protestants, and gave out his favourite doctrine of "No bishops, no king." By this he meant that church government by bishops was a necessary part of the government of a state by a king. The only fruit of this conference was the ordering of a new translation of the Bible, which was completed in 1611. This translation is the one still in common use, and is known as the King James version.

Besides his fondness for bishops, this Stuart king had a peculiar doctrine that later caused both him and his children serious trouble. He claimed to rule by "divine right," that is, he was king "Divine Right" not because of the wish of the English people, but because he was appointed by heaven to rule over them. If this were true, the king could do no wrong, and ought, therefore, to have absolute power, and we soon find the Stuart kings claiming to be above the law and trying to rule without Parliament.

156. Gunpowder Plot. — When the Roman Catholics saw that they were to be allowed no greater liberty of worship than under Elizabeth, a few of the most daring among them, led by Robert Catesby, formed a plot to blow up the king, the Lords, and the Commons, at the opening of Parliament. A cellar beneath the House of Lords was rented and stored with gunpowder. The secret was communicated to a very few Roman Catholic gentlemen, while the

firing of the powder was intrusted to Guy Fawkes, a daring soldier of fortune. One man who was a party to the plot wished to save his brother-in-law, and warned him by letter to stay away from the opening of Parliament. This letter led to the discovery of the plot, and Fawkes was found in the cellar preparing the matches. The conspirators were



THE GUNPOWDER CONSPIRATORS.

put to death, and with them two Jesuit priests who were accused of concealing their knowledge of the conspiracy. Most of the English Roman Catholics

Laws against
Roman
Catholics
made more
severe

knew nothing of the plot and were innocent of any treason, but for many years they had to submit to more severe laws against their religion. The anniversary of the Gunpowder Plot became a day of celebration in England, and even yet officers of the British Parlia-

ment make a formal search in the cellars beneath the House of Parliament before the king comes to read his speech from the throne.

157. James I and Parliament.—During this reign of twenty-two years Parliament actually sat less than two years, or on an average barely a month for each year. During one period of almost seven years no Parliament met. In fact, James never summoned a Parliament unless he could secure money in no other way. But as he wasted enormous sums on his own selfish pleasures, and heaped still greater sums on his greedy and extravagant favourites, he always needed money, and was forced to resort to some peculiar means to secure it without Parliament.

The old privileges of Norman kings relating to "wardship" of minors had never been legally abolished. James agreed to surrender them for £200,000 a year, but before the agreement was concluded, Parliament was dissolved and the king's urgent need of money led him to exact the feudal dues to the last penny. In addition, "monopolies" were revived, and "benevolences," which had been declared illegal, were extorted by means of the "Star Chamber Court." Customs duties were levied without the consent of Parliament. Most shameful of all, titles of honour were openly sold to all who chose to buy. A baronet paid £1000, a baron £10,000, a viscount £20,000, and an earl £30,000. And still the king needed more money, and was forced to call several Parliaments. These

The king's
illegal
methods

Parliaments always insisted on redress of grievances before voting money, and sometimes the king would dissolve the House rather than make any reforms.



JAMES I.

On one occasion, when the Parliament offered some advice to the king, he became very angry and told them that as it was blasphemy to dispute what God might do, so it was sedition in subjects to dispute the will of the king. He further commanded

Stuart
tyranny
begins

them not to meddle with matters of state, and said that a king who had been thirty years at his trade in Scotland and had served a long apprenticeship in England, needed no advice. The Parliament protested against losing their ancient privileges, and then the king with his own hand tore their protest from the journals of the House.

158. Death of Raleigh.—James had married his daughter Elizabeth to Frederick, a Protestant prince who ruled over a German principality. The English

people were eager to give this prince aid against his Roman Catholic enemies, but James was afraid to offend the king of Spain, with whom he hoped to form an alliance by means of another marriage.

Sir Walter Raleigh was imprisoned in 1603, charged with some share in a plot to give the crown to Arabella Stuart, James's cousin. During his twelve years' imprisonment Raleigh wrote a history of the world, and spent much time in the study of chemistry. In 1616 he was allowed to leave prison to lead an expedition to Guiana. Raleigh said he knew of a gold mine there, and would secure great riches for James. The Spaniards were in the neighbourhood of the gold mine, and Raleigh was given strict orders not to attack them. But James gave the Spanish king notice that Raleigh was going to America, and of course the Spaniards were ready to receive him. Raleigh was forced into a fight with the Spaniards and his son was killed, but no gold mine was found. When he came home he was beheaded on the old charge of treason, although every Englishman believed that he was executed wholly to please the king of Spain. "God has made nobler heroes, but he never made a finer gentleman than Walter Raleigh."

An English-man beheaded
to please
Spain

159. Planting Colonies. — Up to this time the English had been a stay-at-home people. We are now to see them planting colonies in every quarter of the globe.

Raleigh's attempts in 1584 to found a settlement in the colony named after the Virgin Queen had

been disappointing, largely because the settlers spent more time in hunting for gold than in cultivating ^{Virginia} the soil. The surviving colonists finally returned to England, carrying with them potatoes and the tobacco plant. In 1606 another settlement was made under John Smith. This remarkable man travelled thousands of miles in making explorations. At one time he was saved from a cruel death by Pocahontas, the daughter of an Indian chief. Pocahontas was a friend to the whites and afterwards married an Englishman. Smith encouraged farmers and mechanics to emigrate, but a large proportion of the early settlers were bankrupt spendthrifts and absolute pleasure-seekers. The cultivation of tobacco proved to be very profitable, and by 1621 Virginia had five thousand people.

Towards the close of Elizabeth's reign the Puritans were more and more the objects of persecution. If <sup>Massa.
chusetts</sup> under Elizabeth they had been restless, under James I they grew hopeless and began to look about for homes in other lands. They did not believe that the church should be governed by the king and the bishops. No doubt many of them became extreme and narrow in their views. Macaulay says of their opinions: "It was a sin to hang flowers on a maypole, to drink a friend's health, to play at chess, to fly a hawk, to hunt a stag, to wear lovelocks, to put starch into a ruff, or to read Spenser's 'Faerie Queene.' The solemn peal of the organ was superstitious; the theatre was dissolute."

They studied the Old Testament more than the New, and the spirit of Christian charity did not always appeal to them so strongly as the Hebrew battle songs. But not all of them were so bigoted in their views. They numbered hundreds of thousands of the most industrious and God-fearing men and women in England. They composed perhaps nine-tenths of the farmers and shop-keepers of the South and East.

In 1608 a small body of Puritans left England to live in Holland. In 1620 they returned to England and embarked from Southampton for America in the *Mayflower*, a vessel of 180 tons. They landed at Plymouth, on the coast of Massachusetts, in December, and had to face a long winter with very little preparation. At the end of ten years the colony numbered only 300 persons, but by 1641 it had increased to 20,000. The descendants of these "Pilgrim Fathers" gradually spread over the surrounding country, and now there are men and women in every part of the United States and even in Canada who are proud to claim descent from the *Mayflower* Pilgrims.

Lord Baltimore was a friend of Charles I, but being converted to the Roman Catholic faith he had to emigrate to escape persecution. He secured a grant of land north of Virginia which he named Maryland in honour of Henrietta Maria, the wife of Charles I. This settlement was open to people of all religions, but the greater number of the settlers were of the old faith.

Before 1600 commerce with India was in the hands

of the Turkey Company which carried goods overland from the Indian Ocean to the Mediterranean Sea.

India The commerce with the East ^v sea was largely in the hands of the Dutch. On the last day of the sixteenth century Elizabeth granted a charter to the "Company of London Merchants" for trade in the East Indies. The charter was renewed from time to time, and several voyages gave the company great profits. Finally in 1612 the English obtained permission from the Great Mogul to open a warehouse at Surat. This was the origin of Britain's Indian Empire.

At the accession of James I Ireland was settling down to some sort of order. The power of the chieftains was largely gone, and justice was every-

Colonisation
in Ireland where administered in the name of the king.

An unwise attempt was made to force Protestantism upon a people who were loyal Catholics. This was the chief cause of a plot against James by two Irish earls, Tyrone and Tyrconnel. The earls were convicted of treason and five hundred thousand acres in the north of Ireland declared to be confiscated to the crown. The poor Irish had to seek other homes and these half million acres were granted to English and Scottish Protestants. The new settlers soon made the north of Ireland a rich and prosperous country, but the hatred of the native Irish for England was very much increased.

160. Spanish Marriage. — King James's heart was set on a Spanish marriage for his son Henry. That

IRELAND 1600-1800

English Miles

0 10 20 30 40



A 10

B Longitude West

of Greenwich

C

D



Prince died in 1612, but the king immediately planned that his second son Charles should marry the Infanta. The Spanish ambassador insisted upon freedom of worship for Roman Catholics in England. The marriage was delayed, and in 1618 the Thirty Years' War between Protestants and Roman Catholics broke out in Germany. James's son-in-law was defeated and driven from his dominions. The English people were very angry, but James yet hoped to arrange a marriage with Spain and have Frederick restored by Spanish influence. In 1623 Prince Charles and the Duke of Buckingham, one of the king's favourites, set out in disguise for Madrid. Charles was John Smith and Buckingham was Thomas Smith. They reached the court, but the strict Spanish etiquette would not allow the lovers a private interview. Charles, however, obtained a view of the Infanta, who tied a blue ribbon on her arm that he might distinguish her as she drove in the royal carriage. One demand after another in favour of the Infanta's religion was made. Charles agreed to everything, and the Infanta began to study English. But no treaty was signed. Perhaps the Infanta feared to marry a heretic, or perhaps Charles was not charmed with the princess. At any rate, the Smiths returned to England eager for war with Spain.

161. Death of James I, 1625. — Just when the nation was becoming wildly excited over the prospect of a Spanish war, the king died. He was little regretted. A man who shuddered at a drawn sword, wore a

quilted jacket to protect himself from being stabbed, and publicly fondled the Duke of Buckingham could not hold the respect of the stern English Puritans. Perhaps the remark of a great French statesman that James was "the wisest fool in Christendom" was a just estimate of this king.

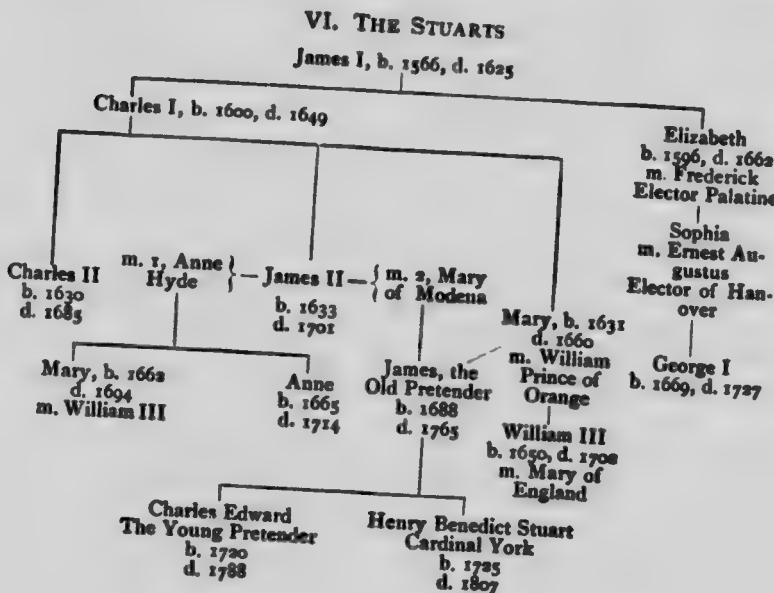
162. Francis Bacon. — The most learned man of the age was Francis Bacon, the philosopher. He studied

law and gained some promotion under Elizabeth. Owing to the favour of James I, he rose to be Lord Chancellor. The Parliament of 1621 was hostile to the king and determined to strike a blow at the bribery and dishonesty in the courts. Bacon was a favourite of the king and was also the chief officer in the administra-

FRANCIS BACON.



tion of justice. He was accordingly singled out for the first punishment. He had, following the custom of the time, taken gifts — which he did not look upon as bribes — from men whose suits in the courts were not yet decided. He acknowledged his guilt, and was sentenced to a fine of £40,000 besides imprisonment. The king, however, released him after two days' imprisonment, remitted his fine, and granted him a pension of £1200 a year. A few years later Bacon died from the effects of a cold caught in the effort to find out whether or not snow would preserve dead chickens.



SECTION 2. CHARLES I, 1625-1649

163. A Courtly Prince. — "Baby Charles," as he was called by James I, gave promise of becoming a good king. The people were very much pleased that the Spanish princess was not to become queen of England, and they had not yet learned how many promises of favours to Roman Catholics had been made to Henrietta Maria of France, who now became the king's bride. Charles was courtly in manner, had no low vices, and seemed really anxious to rule wisely. Unfortunately, he clung to his father's idea of "divine right." Still worse, he showed that his promises meant nothing and that no laws could bind him.

164. *Foreign Wars.*—When Buckingham and Prince Charles returned from Spain, war was at once declared. An expedition was sent against Cadiz, but the attempt proved a failure. Another expedition sent through Holland to aid Frederick in Germany



CHARLES I.

fared no better, and the blame fell upon Buckingham, now the king's minister, who managed the wars.

Just at this time the Huguenots, or French Protestants, were being persecuted by the great Cardinal Richelieu. Buckingham thought to gain popularity by aiding them. His aid proved their ruin and made the English people hate him still more. Besides

wasting public money on wars, Buckingham squandered a great deal on his own pleasures, especially on dress and show. His haughty manner and open contempt for the people made them call for his removal.

165. King Charles and Parliament. — The foreign wars made it necessary to secure money from Parliament. But Parliament was firm in refusing grants until the king promised better government. The king believed that the chief duty of Parliaments was to vote money; Parliament believed itself to be the king's adviser. So when it refused to vote money, the king levied customs duties, and raised forced loans on his own authority. As Buckingham was the king's closest friend, he was blamed for his master's 'gs, and a bill of impeachment was brought before the House of Lords, charging the royal favourite with many misdeeds. When Buckingham laughed at the charge, a peer said to him, "My Lord, I can show you where a man of greater blood than your lordship, and as high in place and power, and as deep in the king's favour as you, hath been hanged for as small a crime as the least mentioned in this charge." To save Buckingham, the king dissolved the Parliament.

166. Petition of Right, 1628. — Forced loans, benevolences, and illegal customs duties gave the king a considerable revenue, but not enough for his necessities, especially when so much was being wasted. Another Parliament was called to vote money. Not

a shilling would the Commons grant until wrongs were righted. A bill called the Petition of Right was drawn up and presented to the king. This document contained nothing new, but as the old English charters had been so shamefully set aside, it was necessary to have the old laws brought forth again,



GEORGE VILLIERS, DUKE OF
BUCKINGHAM.

only when the Commons threatened to declare Buckingham a public enemy. Shortly after this, as

Death of
Buckingham Buckingham was going on board ship at Portsmouth, he was stabbed to the heart by John Felton. Few Englishmen felt any sorrow at the death of the man whom they looked upon as the evil adviser of the king.

167. The Puritans. — The Puritans were daily becoming more and more disheartened. The Protestants were losing ground in Germany, and the French Huguenots were completely crushed. Laud, the

and signed by the king. It was declared illegal for the king to take a subject's money, either as a loan, a benevolence, or a tax, except with the consent of Parliament. No man was to be imprisoned, except on a definite charge. The king's soldiers and sailors were not to be sent to board with private citizens. Charles held out a long time, and gave way

bishop of London, was the king's adviser in religious affairs, and, in the eyes of the Puritans, he was trying to lead the English church to Rome. Laud declared that subjects were bound to obey The Policy
of Laud the king under all circumstances, and even to give up their goods at his command. This was certainly no part of Roman Catholic doctrine, but Laud also introduced into the church service many changes that made it much like that of Henry VIII. Perhaps Laud thought that a time might come when the English church could again be joined to that of Rome. The Puritans wished to keep Sunday as strictly as the Jews had kept their Sabbath. Laud shocked them by encouraging the people to use the Sunday afternoons for pleasure.

168. One-man Rule, 1629-1640. — Although King Charles signed the Petition of Right, the Parliament went on protesting against abuses. Once the Speaker of the House was about to leave the chair, saying that such was the king's order, when two members held him down while the House passed a resolution declaring that whoever made changes in religion favouring the church of Rome, or whoever paid a tax not levied by Parliament, was an enemy of his country. The king came with his guard and battered at the door just as the resolution was being passed. For the next eleven years no Parliament met, and during that time the king's power was almost absolute. In spite of his promise to observe the Petition of Right, Charles deliberately set himself to raise a revenue by

any means that promised success. He openly said that, since Parliament had refused to grant him supplies, it was his duty to obtain money by other means. Monopolies were again sold. Gifts were demanded from wealthy men, and old, forgotten laws were made an excuse for imposing fines upon the people. One old law had forbidden the extension of the city of London, and now the owners of the houses in the forbidden area had to pay heavy fines or have their houses pulled down. The Star Chamber Court was kept busy imposing fines, and seldom indeed did any man who was brought before the king's judges escape without a heavy penalty. The High Commission Court was under Laud, who had now become Archbishop of Canterbury. Puritans who refused to adopt the prescribed ceremonies of worship were Laud's special dislike. They were fined, imprisoned, whipped, branded, and in some cases had their ears clipped. No man in England did so much as Laud to drive settlers to New England.

169. Ship Money.—Although the king was very saving, his illegal revenue was not sufficient to meet expenses. His lawyers discovered that an old custom had required the seaport towns to furnish either ships or money to protect the country in time of war. Charles said that if seaport towns were bound to do this, then all towns were so bound. And if bound to do so in time of war, why not, he said, also in time of peace? So a tax called "ship money" was laid upon the whole nation without consent of

Parliament. Many men paid the tax, but John Hampden refused. Twenty shillings was a small sum, but Hampden believed this tax was only the beginning of a plan to secure much greater amounts. Seven judges out of twelve declared against Hampden, but the people were on his side, and many were encouraged to stand out against such injustice.

170. **Sir Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford.** — In the early part of this reign no member of the Commons spoke more boldly for liberty than Sir Thomas Wentworth. After the death of Buckingham, Wentworth deserted his old friends, and accepted a post of honour from the king. "You are going to leave us, but we will never leave you while your head is on your shoulders," said John Pym, one of his fellow-members in the Commons. Wentworth was made Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and later Earl of Strafford. In Ireland his aim was to make the king absolute, and he succeeded so well that the Irish Parliament voted supplies to maintain a standing army of five thousand men. The whole island was brought under the rule of a master, but it was a rule resting on fear and maintained partly by arousing a mutual hatred between Protestants and Roman Catholics. Strafford urged Charles to establish an equally despotic rule in Eng-



JOHN HAMPDEN.

land, and even advised that Irish soldiers be used to deprive the English of their liberties.

171. *The English Prayer-book in Scotland.* — Not content with irritating England, Charles had so little tact that he now made enemies of his Scottish subjects. Urged on by Laud he decided to force the



SIR THOMAS WENTWORTH, EARL STRAFFORD.

Episcopal Prayer-book upon the Presbyterians of Scotland. Very few of the Scottish clergymen obeyed the king's order. In Edinburgh an old woman named Jane Geddes threw her footstool at the dean's head when he attempted to read the service, saying, "Do you mean to say mass at my ear?" The Scots would not submit and were soon in rebel-

lion. To fight them the king must have money, and to get any large sum of money he must have a Parliament. Thus it happened that after eleven years Parliament was again summoned. When it met in 1640 the members refused to vote any money until Charles promised to put an end to illegal taxes. This the king refused to do and dissolved the Parliament.

172. **The Long Parliament.**—The Scottish army was still in England, and the king's purse was so empty that he was forced to call another Parliament. Every man seemed to feel that a crisis had come, and the members elected were, in almost every case, Puritans and opposed to the king. Led by Pym the Commons accused Strafford and Laud of treason. Strafford was *impeached* before the House of Lords. This means that the House of Commons laid the charges and summoned witnesses while the House of Lords sat as judges. There was some doubt as to whether Strafford was legally guilty, since he was acting with the king's consent; there was no doubt whatever that he had planned to aid Charles in depriving the English people of their ancient liberties as laid down in the Magna Charta and confirmed by the Petition of Right. In their fear that the bill of impeachment might fail, the Commons fell back upon their last resource, one to be justified only when the liberties of the people were in grave danger. The bill of impeachment was withdrawn and Strafford was sentenced to die by an *Act of Attainder*, which is simply an act of Parliament

declaring a man's life forfeited. Charles signed the bill, sacrificed his friend, and lost his ablest adviser. Countrymen who rode into London to witness his execution went home shouting, "His head is off, his head is off!" The bonfires blazed and people



JOHN PYM.

seemed to feel that a great danger was removed. Laud was thrown into prison to meet a like fate a few years later.

Pym's power in this Parliament was so great that he was called "King Pym." The Star Chamber Court and the Court of High Commission were next abolished.

173. **Massacre in Ulster.** — While the Long Parliament was busy making these changes, terrible news came from Ireland. The native Irish had never forgotten that they had been robbed of their homes by the English and Scots, and now that the strong hand of Strafford was removed a terrible massacre took place. Thousands of English were killed in a few days; — some were even buried alive.

174. **Attempt to arrest Five Members.** — The debates in the Long Parliament grew warm and then hot. Religion was the cause of much dispute. Some wished to shut out the bishops from the House of Lords. While the debates were going on the names "Cavalier" and "Roundhead" first came into use. The Cavaliers were ^{Cavaliers} the bold courtly gentlemen who wore long curling hair, rode horseback in dashing style, and gave the king a steady support. The Puritan ^{Roundheads} farmers and merchants who dressed plainly and scorned such frivolities as flowing locks were named Roundheads, because they wore their hair cropped close to the head.

The quarrels in Parliament grew so noisy that the king went to arrest the five members, who were the leaders of the Roundheads. The members were warned of the king's approach and left the house. This made Charles very angry, but he was forced to return in a bad humour to the queen who was always urging him to be master of his kingdom.

From this time the king's party and the Parlia-

ment began to carry arms and prepare for war. Soon the king left London for Oxford and about sixty members of the Lords and Commons joined him. The universities and the chief nobility and landowners of the North and West were for the king; the farmers and merchants of the South and East including London and other rich towns were with the Parliament.

175. The Civil War Begins. — Before fighting actually began, the Parliament made a last attempt



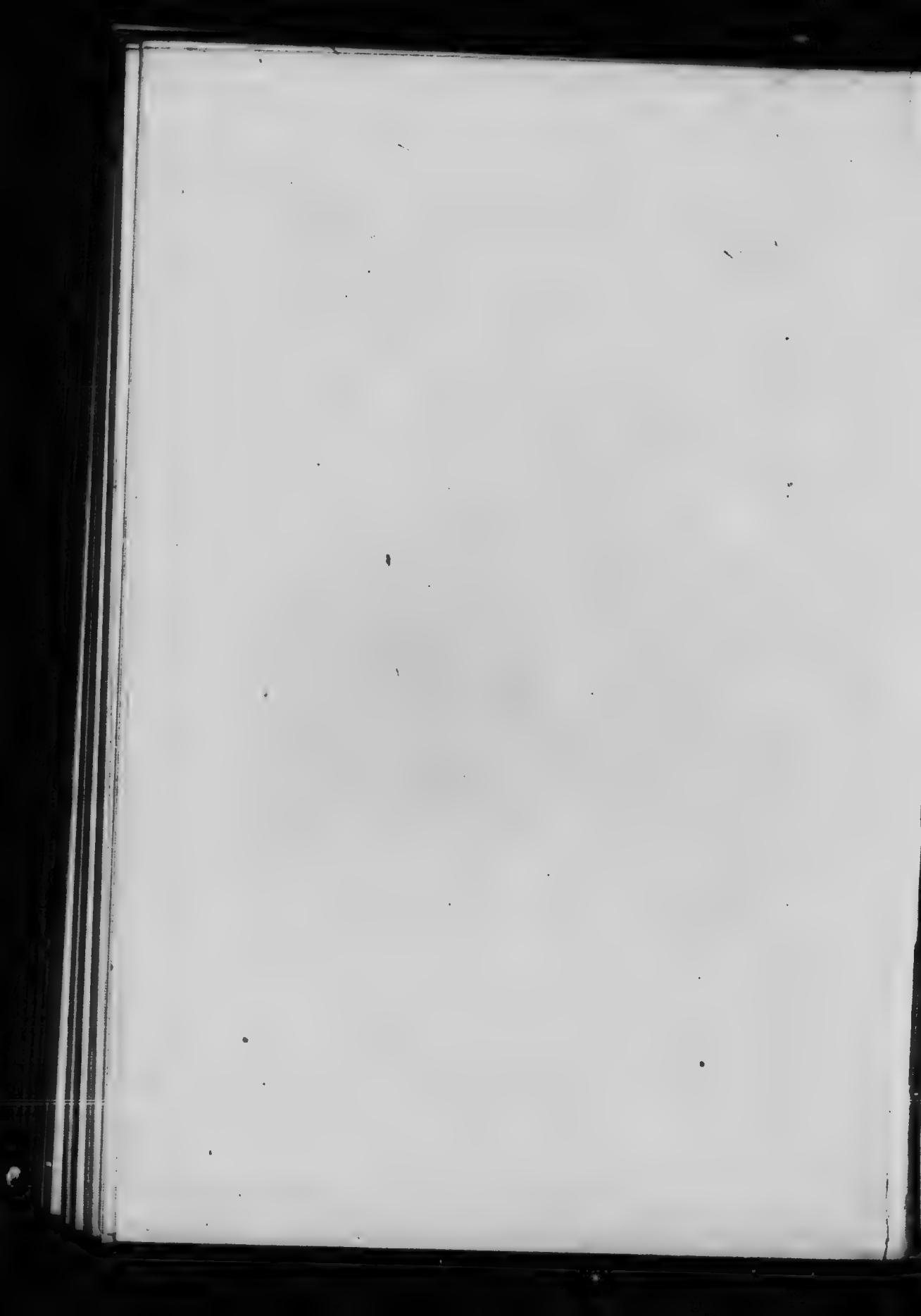
PILLORY.

to keep peace by offering the king certain articles for his signature. "Should I grant these demands," said the king, "I may be waited on bare-headed; I may have my hand kissed; the title of majesty may be continued to me, and I may please

myself with the sight of a crown, but as to real and true power, I should remain but the picture of a King Charles king." And no Stuart king was ever content to be a "picture."

Both sides made great sacrifices. The queen hurried to Holland with the crown jewels to raise a loan. Many nobles and gentry cheerfully gave up their silver plate to be coined for the king's use.





Among the Parliament, many men gave of their private fortunes to equip an army. Poor women brought thimbles, brooches, and even wedding rings to be melted into money. The king's party was better trained in war, and in the beginning it won some victories. The first engagement was a cavalry charge at Edgehill, in which ^{Edgehill, 1642} neither party had a decisive advantage. The king's troops were led by his nephew, Prince Rupert, a headstrong, daring young man of twenty-three.

176. Oliver Cromwell. — At first the parliamentary army was under Lord Essex. He had little ability and no desire to really conquer the king. But very early in the war at least one man in England saw clearly what the Parliament must do in order to win. Oliver Cromwell had spent his early life as a gentleman farmer. He was elected to the Long Parliament, and when the war broke out he soon declared that the Roundheads could never hope to win victories against men of spirit while their own men were broken-down serving-men, and others of low birth. With Cromwell, to see the right was to act, and he immediately set about raising a company of men made up of independent farmers and tradesmen, who fought not for money but for love of country. These men were officered, for the most part, by gentlemen, but Cromwell never hesitated to give commands to men of mean rank, if the promotion were deserved. Such an army the world has seldom seen. Instead of coarse jests and vulgar songs,

there were heard around the camp-fires the psalms of David and the petitions of strong men in earnest prayer. "No man swears but he pays his twelvepence; if he be drunk, he is set in the stocks or worse."

Cromwell's Ironsides A few such men were better than thousands of drunken hirelings. Cromwell's men were never beaten, and came to be known as



COSTUMES, TIME OF CHARLES I.

Ironsides. These men were under such strict discipline that they took no plunder and carried off no food without making payment.

Death of Hampden Early in the war, John Hampden was killed in a cavalry charge at Chalgrove Field. A little later Pym died, and the loss of these great men brought Cromwell more than ever to the Solemn League and Covenant front. Pym's last act was to make an agreement with Scotland, by which the Scots were to aid the Parliament, and the Parliament was to

adopt the Presbyterian religion in England. The Scottish army, together with Cromwell's Ironsides, was now more than a match for the king's troops, and in two bloody battles, Marston Moor and Naseby, the royal power was broken.



CHARLES AND HIS CHILDREN.

177. The King's Surrender.— Seeing that his cause was hopeless, Charles fled northwards and gave himself up to the Scottish army. Up to this time, perhaps no man, in either England or Scotland, had any thoughts of putting the king to death. He was still king, and the desire was to force him into submission. But from this time until his death,

Charles gave all sorts of promises and made bargains with every party, hoping that he might yet regain his former power.

One thing, however, he would not promise, and that was to accept the Presbyterian religion, so the Scots handed him over to the English Parliament. About the same time, thirty-six cartloads of silver arrived at the Scottish camp, being the payment of a debt owed by the English Parliament. The king said that the Scots had sold him, whereas they had handed him over to the English because they did not know what to do with him. Furthermore they had not asked him to throw himself on their protection.

178. *The Independents.* — Cromwell's army was largely made up of men who were neither Roman Catholics, English churchmen, nor Presbyterians. They were Puritan Independents. They did not believe in any set form of national religion, but desired that each congregation should manage its own affairs. These Independents in the army now began to quarrel with the Presbyterians. The king encouraged all parties and was true to none. The Presbyterian dislike for the Independents at last grew so strong that a rising took place in Scotland in favour of the king. Cromwell set out for the North to crush the outbreak, and declared that when he should return, the king must answer for the bloodshed. The Scots were routed at Preston, and the victorious army returned to London.

Preston, 1648

Cromwell now sent Colonel Pride to prevent the one hundred and forty-three Presbyterians from sitting in the Long Parliament. Those left were nicknamed the "Rump," and they speedily formed a court to try the king. He was condemned to die as a "tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy."

SECTION 3. THE COMMONWEALTH, 1649-1660

179. Monarchy Abolished. — Soon after the execution of the king, the "Rump" voted to abolish the monarchy, and declared that England should be governed as a commonwealth. A Council of State, consisting of forty-one members, was appointed to rule. Seldom has any ruling body had gloomier prospects. All Europe was horror-stricken at the news that the English people had beheaded their king. Scotland and Ireland immediately made offers of support to Prince Charles, and even in England there were thousands who favoured a monarchy. Upon the army alone could the Council of State place absolute dependence.

180. Cromwell and Ireland. — The first pressing danger was from Ireland, where Charles II was proclaimed king and a large army raised in his support by the Duke of Ormond. Cromwell was sent to put down the rising, and in doing so he showed much vigour and perhaps unnecessary severity. Drogheda was stormed, and every man

bearing arms was put to death; about two thousand were slain. Shortly after, thousands more were slaughtered at Wexford. The officers were shot, and many of the soldiers were shipped to the Barbadoes. Before such measures the Irish quickly gave



OLIVER CROMWELL.

way, but for ages after, an Irishman's worst wish was, "The curse of Cromwell be upon you."

181. Prince Charles in Scotland. — When his hopes from Ireland were blasted, Prince Charles went to

Prince
Charles a
Presbyterian Scotland, where he rallied the Presbyterians around him by taking a solemn oath to support their religion. A large Scottish army took the field to fight for the young

king. Cromwell promptly crossed the Border. The Scots had the advantage of position, but in a battle it usually happens that military genius and experience are of more value than mere position. When the battle began, Cromwell said, "Let God arise and let His enemies be scattered." Three thousand Scots were slain and ten thousand taken prisoners. About four thousand prisoners were sent to their homes. A year later the young king invaded England, and Cromwell again crushed him at Worcester on the anniversary of Dun-

Dunbar, 1650

Worcester,
1651

bar. Charles now had many adventurous escapes. At one time he was hidden in an oak tree while Crom-

well's troopers
were searching
for him below.
In the end, he es-
caped to France
by disguising
himself as a ser-
vant to a young
lady.

**182. John Mil-
ton. — Next to
Cromwell the
most interesting**

man of this period was John Milton, who was Latin secretary to the Council of State. It was left to Milton to explain to the nations of Europe the real



JOHN MILTON.

reasons why Charles I had been put to death. Milton's clear reasoning did much to gain favour for the Commonwealth among fair-minded men. It was during this period of overwork that the great Puritan writer became blind. At a later period, when completely blind, he wrote the great poems, "Paradise Lost" and "Paradise Regained."

183. War with Holland, 1653. — The Dutch were at this time the greatest commercial nation in the world. The Commonwealth passed the Navigation Act, which said that foreign goods coming into England must come in the ships of the nation sending the goods. The Dutch were displeased, and war broke out. Van Tromp, the Dutch admiral, was a brave commander, and in one great fight he forced the English to retreat. He then sailed along the Channel with a broom at his mast-head as an insult to the English. Parliament fitted out another fleet, ^{Dutch War,} and the English admiral, Blake, chased ¹⁶⁵³ the Dutch out of English waters. Blake's success was the more brilliant because he had been a soldier all his life, taking command of his first ship only three years before this victory.

184. Expulsion of the "Rump." — Cromwell was growing impatient with the Rump Parliament. The members did much talking and little business. They seldom numbered over eighty, and in no way represented England. They were incessantly talking of dissolving, yet never doing it. They even proposed that if they were dissolved, every man among them

should have a seat in the new Parliament without election. One day Cromwell went down to the House with a body of musketeers. He sat and listened awhile, then made a fiery speech, ending by saying: "Call them in; call them in. We have had enough of this. I will put an end to your prating." The soldiers came in and cleared the house. Cromwell locked the door and put the key in his pocket. Few men

Long Parlia-
ment dis-
solved, 1653



SHILLING PIECE OF THE COMMONWEALTH.

felt any sorrow for the fate of the "Rump." Cromwell himself said, "We did not hear a dog bark at their going."

185. Military Rule, 1653-1658. — A sort of convention was now called, and the leading men declared Cromwell to be Lord Protector of the Commonwealth. After this, Cromwell made one or two attempts to rule by Parliament, but did not succeed. In fact, he was as ready to quarrel with Parliaments as Charles I had been. He really ruled by the army, and for this purpose divided England into ten military districts

with a captain over each. The five years of military rule were years of peace and prosperity. Never had the laws been more strictly and justly administered. On the very day that the Commonwealth concluded an alliance with Portugal, a brother of the Portuguese ambassador was hanged in London for murder. Such fearless acts made foreigners respect the nation. Cromwell was far from happy. He lived in constant fear of assassination. It was reported that the exiled prince was offering large rewards to any one who would

Death of
Cromwell,
1658 put him out of the way by "pistol, sword, dagger, or poison." The death of a favourite

daughter, and the cares of government brought on an illness from which he died in 1658.

186. End of Puritan Rule. — Cromwell's son Richard succeeded him as Protector. Richard was a harmless, amiable man, but he did not know how to rule a nation. In less than two years Prince Charles was invited to return to England to become its king.

The country was tired of Puritan rule. Not all Puritans were so earnest and patriotic as Cromwell and Milton. Many of them were bigoted and others were insincere. They had put an end to all amuse-

Puritans ob-
jected to
amusements ments even to the dance around the May-pole. The theatres were closed. Sunday sports were severely punished. Children were not even allowed to play at ninepins on that day. No man might take a walk on Sunday, except to church, without being rebuked by some zealous Puritan. It was a grievous sin to say, "Plague take

you," or to eat mince pies at Christmas. The honest desire of the best Puritans to discourage vice had grown by degrees until the narrowness of many so-called Puritans was ridiculous.

SECTION I. CHARLES II, 1660-1685

187. The Restoration. — Every honest Briton must blush with shame as he reads the history of the "Merry Monarch." For a quarter of a century his court was a scene of folly and wickedness. Puritan strictness was followed by a royal license that set no bounds to shameful acts. The money voted to the king by

Parliament was wasted on wicked pleasures. The king's character was very truthfully expressed by a court favourite in a verse which he wrote, saying it would do for his master's epitaph : —

"Here lies our sovereign lord, the king,
Whose word no man relies on;
Who never said a foolish thing,
Nor never does a wise one."



CHARLES II.

The Puritan army was disbanded, but the king kept five thousand troops as a bodyguard. This gradually grew into our present standing army.

188. Treatment of Regicides. — All concerned in the death of Charles I were called regicides. Charles II had promised to pardon all such who surrendered. The promise was not kept, and of those who gave themselves up, some were executed and others were kept in prison. The bodies of Cromwell and some others were dragged from their graves and hanged in chains, while those of Pym and the great Blake were spitefully removed from

Corporation Act, 1661 Westminster Abbey. To protect the lives of future sovereigns Parliament compelled all officials to take a solemn oath declaring their belief that it was not lawful for a subject under any circumstances to take up arms against a king.

189. The King's Revenue. — The king's first Parliament was so loyal that it voted him for life the sum of £1,200,000 annually. In return Charles gave up all feudal control over wards and heiresses. The king's revenue made him largely independent of Parliament. He had more ready money than any previous sovereign.

190. Protestant Dissenters. — Charles owed his throne to the Presbyterians. But Stuart kings never remembered obligations. The new Parliament was almost wholly made up of "cavaliers" who wished to see the prayer-book restored. The Presbyterians and Independents objected to this, but an Act of

Uniformity was passed requiring all clergymen to use the prayer-book. Some two thousand refused and gave up their churches. The Protestants in England who were opposed to the use of the prayer-book now came to be called *Dissenters*. These Dissenters, who were mostly Baptists and Quakers, were persecuted by

*Act of
Uniformity,
1662*



ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL BEFORE THE FIRE.

fines and imprisonment for not attending church, as many as ten thousand being in prison at one time. An attempt was also made to break up dissenting congregations by the Five-mile Act, 1665

Act, which forbade their clergy to preach or teach within five miles of any town or city.

Among the dissenting preachers was John Bunyan,

the tinker, who spent twelve years in jail. As Bunyan could not carry on his old trade in jail he learned to make tags for stay-laces, and these were sold at the prison door by his little blind daughter. Sometimes Bunyan was permitted to leave the prison for a few hours to preach to some neighbouring congregation. During his imprisonment he wrote his wonderful vision, called "Pilgrim's Progress," which has been translated into more than thirty foreign languages.

191. The Covenanters. — The Presbyterians, both in England and Scotland, were called Covenanters because they had signed a solemn league and covenant to protect their religion. Charles allowed the Scottish Parliament to establish the same form of worship in Scotland as was used in England, but the Presbyterians refused to go to church, just as the Dissenters had refused in England. And now began a terrible religious persecution in Scotland. The Covenanters held meetings in private houses or in the fields. These meetings, called **Conventicles**, were forbidden and broken up by armed soldiers. In spite of persecution the Covenanters met in caves and other secret places, always going armed and ready to fight.

192. William Penn. — Among the Dissenters was a body called Quakers. These people held some peculiar views. They would not take an oath; they thought it wrong to engage in war; they dressed very plainly; they used the pronouns "thou" and

"thee"; they would not even prosecute their fellow-men in the courts. A certain Quaker named William Penn was the son of an English admiral who had loaned the king £16,000 to equip the navy. The king was unwilling to repay the debt to the son, but made no objection to giving him a grant of land in



PENN'S TREATY WITH THE INDIANS.

America comprising the present state of Pennsylvania. Here Penn took thousands of persecuted Quakers who were glad to escape torture and imprisonment. Penn made treaties with the Indians and bought the land from them. He also punished severely any merchant who dealt dishonestly with the Indians. In the event of any dispute between a white man and an Indian the case was to be settled

by a committee made up of six white men and six Indians.

193. The Great Plague, 1665.—A fatal disease broke out in London. All who could do so left the city. The people died by thousands. The living could scarcely bury the dead; the houses visited by the disease were marked with a red cross and the words "The Lord have mercy upon us." Grass grew in the streets. At night the death-cart rumbled through the deserted city, and the drivers cried, "Bring out your dead." At least one hundred thousand perished.

194. The Great Fire, 1666.—Scarcely had the plague died out when a terrible fire swept away part of the city. A high wind was blowing and the wooden houses burned like so much kindling. It is said that thirteen thousand homes were laid in ashes. The Roman Catholics were blamed for the fire, and for nearly two hundred years a monument in London bore an inscription which did an injustice to people who are now known to have been innocent. "The burning of this Protestant city was begun by the malice of the Popish faction to extirpate the Protestant religion and English liberties." This inscription was effaced in 1830. The old cathedral of St. Paul's was burned and the new one was planned by Sir Christopher Wren. Perhaps it was just as well that the old plague-infected houses were destroyed. Better buildings and wider streets soon covered the burnt district.

195. The Dutch War. — The Dutch and the English were rivals in commerce. In 1664 a quarrel broke out because of a dispute over the trade in West



ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL.

Africa, and as the Dutch were also determined to control the spice trade of the East Indies, a crisis was reached. First, the merchants of the two countries and then the governments took part in the dispute. The Dutch had a colony in America, at the mouth

of the Hudson River, called New Amsterdam. England seized this colony and called it New York, after the king's brother. Several stubborn battles were fought on the water, and on one occasion the Dutch admiral, De Ruyter, sailed up the Thames and carried off the finest ship in the English fleet. The king was really to blame for this because he had wasted on his pleasures the money voted for the war, leaving the fleet without either men or supplies. The peace treaty left England in possession of New York, but gave to the Dutch control of the spice trade with the East. Six years later the war was renewed, and peace was restored only when the Dutch Prince, William of Orange, was married to Mary, a daughter of the Duke of York.

198. **Treaty of Dover.** — England, Holland, and Sweden, three of the Protestant nations of Europe, entered into a league called the Triple Alliance. The chief object of this alliance was to prevent Louis XIV of France from seizing any part of Holland.

No act of his reign reveals the dishonesty of Charles II more clearly than the secret treaty of Dover made with Louis of France almost immediately after the Triple Alliance. By this treaty Charles bound himself to aid France in conquering Holland, to declare himself a Roman Catholic as soon as he dared to do so, and to grant freedom of worship to Roman Catholics in England. In return Louis XIV was to make Charles

England
gains New
York, 1664

Dutch in the
Medway,
1667

Secret treaty
of Dover,
1668

independent of Parliament by a large pension and furnish French troops to put down the English if they rose in rebellion.

197. Declaration of Indulgence, 1672. — Charles II was at heart a Roman Catholic. It was part of his



SIR CHRISTOPHER WREN.

plan to persecute the Dissenters until they should agree to a general toleration that would include the church of Rome. Few of the Dissenters were willing to buy their freedom in this way because they believed that the toleration of the Roman Catholic religion would lead to serious troubles. In 1672 the king issued on his own authority a Declaration of

Indulgence, which gave liberty of public worship to Protestant Dissenters, and allowed Roman Catholics to hold services in private houses. Thousands of innocent men were set free from the jails, and broken families were again united.

198. Test Act, 1673. — The king's real design in the Declaration of Indulgence was to benefit the Roman Catholics. There was a feeling throughout the land that the country was in danger. The king's brother, James, was known to be a Catholic, and he was in command of the fleet. Whispers went round that the king himself leaned towards Rome. Parliament forced Charles to recall the Declaration of indulgence and to give his assent to the Test Act. This act required every man holding civil or military office to take an oath against transubstantiation, and to receive the sacraments according to the rules of the English church. The Duke of York immediately resigned his command, and his example was followed by hundreds in the civil service and the army.

199. Exclusion Bill. — So determined was the opposition of Englishmen to a Roman Catholic ruler that it was now proposed to shut out James, Duke of York, from the throne. Charles II had no legitimate children, but he had a son called the Duke of Monmouth who was very popular among the middle-class English Protestants. Some even declared that the king had really been married to Monmouth's mother. One plan was to declare Monmouth heir to

the throne and shut out the Duke of York. Another plan was to give the crown to Mary, a Protestant daughter of the Duke of York and wife of William of Orange. The Monmouth party won the first victory and the Exclusion Bill passed the House of Com.



COSTUMES, TIME OF CHARLES II.

mons. The king now used his influence to secure the throne for his brother, and the bill was rejected by the Lords.

200. Whig and Tory.—It was during this excitement that the words Whig and Tory first came into general use. The friends of the Duke of York were naturally opponents of the Exclusion Bill. Some one noted that the duke favoured Irishmen, and

immediately all who opposed the bill were called *Irish*, and then *wild Irish*, and then *Tories*, which originally signified an Irish robber or "bog-trotter," that is, a man who lived an outcast life among the bogs. A little later the friends of the bill were called *Whigs*, which in Scotland meant sour whey, and was a nickname first given to Scottish rebels. Within a very few years these nicknames were accepted by the people to whom they were given, and when party government was introduced, we find every man owning himself to be either Whig or Tory.

201. Habeas Corpus Act, 1679.—The Magna Charta and the Petition of Right had spoken very clearly about the rights of every Englishman to a fair trial before imprisonment. But the king's officers could find many ways to set aside the laws. Both Mary of Scotland and Sir Walter Raleigh spent long years in prison without any trial or legal sentence. Prisoners before trial were sometimes sent to Ireland, Scotland, or America, where their friends could not trace them easily. In the midst of the debates on the Exclusion Bill, an act was passed called the Habeas Corpus Act, which means in Latin, *you have the body*. By this act a jailer is bound, upon demand being made, to produce in court the body of his prisoner, and show by what authority he is detained. If there is no evidence, the prisoner must be discharged, and if the offence is not serious, he must be allowed to furnish bail.

202. Popish Plot.—Just before the Exclusion Bill there was a great outcry against Roman Catholics

because of the so-called "Popish Plot." A tale was started by Titus Oates, an unprincipled scoundrel, who said that the Roman Catholics were plotting to murder Charles II, and make James king, after which there was to be a general massacre of Protestants. In those days people were easily excited over

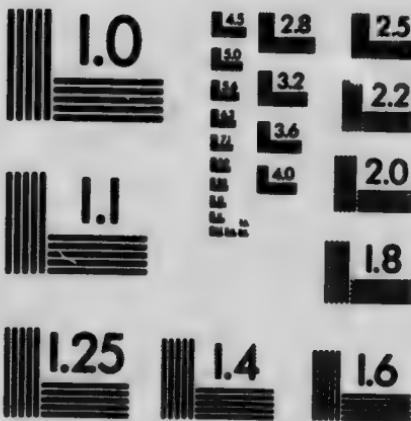


COSTUMES, TIME OF CHARLES II.

religion. The Gunpowder Plot was yet fresh in their minds, and for a time Oates published a fresh lie every morning. He grew so bold as to accuse innocent men by name. Several prominent Roman Catholics were executed before the real character of Oates was discovered. As we have seen there really was a plot to make England a Roman Catholic country, but the king himself was the chief plotter, and per-



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haps some vague hints of the secret treaty of Dover had reached the people and made them more ready to believe the slanders of Oates.

203. Death of Charles II. — The Merry Monarch was now an old man, worn out with dissipation. He had lived only fifty-five years, but forty of those years had been wasted in the pursuit of pleasure. When he came to die his brother James smuggled a Roman Catholic priest up the back stairs, and from him King Charles received the last rites of the church. Even in the hour of death his ready wit did not fail him, and he apologised for being so long in dying.

SECTION 5. JAMES II, 1685-1688

204. Promises to maintain the Laws. — The excitement over the Exclusion Bill and the Popish Plot had really made the Duke of York less unpopular than before, and when he became king, the people were ready to give him a hearty support. Although he was a Roman Catholic, he solemnly swore to protect the English church, and his subjects believed he would keep his oath. Everything was in his favour. The Tories were in the majority, and their loyalty "Passive obedience" was unbounded. They gave a ready assent to a doctrine preached at that time by the English church called the doctrine of "passive obedience" or "non-resistance," which meant that subjects were bound to obey a king, no matter how unjustly he might rule them.

205. **Monmouth's Rebellion.** — Monmouth did not allow his uncle to wear the crown without a struggle. Leaving Holland, where he had been visiting William of Orange, he landed in Dorset and soon had in his train a small army of peasants, who welcomed him as a Protestant. Monmouth's army was untrained, and part of his followers armed only with scythes and axes. Moving towards London he met the king's troops at Sedgemoor. Here Monmouth attempted to surprise the royal army, but was completely defeated and captured. He begged for mercy, but King James gave orders for his execution. The Duke of Argyle, who had led a rising of the Campbells in Scotland, was also defeated and executed.

Sedgemoor,
1685

206. **Bloody Assize.** — It was now decided to make an example of the poor ignorant peasants who had joined Monmouth. Judge Jeffreys was sent into the west country to travel on circuit and condemn the offenders. It is hard to believe that only a little more than two hundred years ago England had such a brutal judge. He swore at the prisoners, called them names, mocked them, and in some cases refused to hear a word of evidence in their favour. To one man he said, "Thou impudent rebel. I see thee already with the halter round thy neck." Another produced evidence that he was a good Protestant. "Protestant!" roared Jeffreys, "you mean Presbyterian. I'll hold you a wager of it. I can smell a Presbyterian forty miles." Alice Lisle, an old

woman eighty years of age, was hanged for sheltering two soldiers who had fought with Monmouth. In all, 350 were hanged, and hundreds of others were whipped, tortured, or sold into slavery. In several cases the queen's maids of honour made for-



GEORGE, BARON JEFFREYS.

tunes by taking large sums of money from the rebels' friends and then getting Jeffreys to set them free. Only those with money could hope for any mercy. When Jeffreys returned to London, his own father refused to see him, but James thanked him and gave him the position of Lord Chancellor.

207. James II and the Test Act. — After this rebellion the loyalty of the people was unbounded, and James felt that he could do as he chose. His great desire was to give the Roman Catholics equal rights with the Protestants. Perhaps if he had gone about the matter wisely, he might have succeeded. But instead of winning the people little by little, he alarmed them by doing many things that were contrary to law. Roman Catholic officers were given

Test Act
violated places in the army and navy without conforming to the Test Act; the law was entirely set aside. Contrary to the laws, Jesuits and monks were allowed to return to England.

The king increased the army, and asked Parliament for more money. In spite of its loyalty, Parliament protested against the king's violation of the laws. James answered by dissolving the Parliament.

Standing army increased

Many years before this, Henry IV of France had put an end to religious wars in that country by issuing a decree called the Edict of Nantes, which gave Huguenots, or French Protestants, some liberty of worship. Louis XIV of France now withdrew this edict, and so persecuted the Huguenots that thousands of them fled to other countries. Many came to London, and among them was a strong colony of hat-makers and silk-weavers, who built up a thriving trade. This action of the French king made the English people yet more suspicious of James II. They feared that he was planning to make England a Roman Catholic country.

Huguenots come to England

208. Judges Dismissed.—James II claimed that it was his privilege to do many things on his own authority, even though those things were forbidden by Parliament. There is no doubt that the doctrines of "divine right" and "passive obedience," which were preached by the English church clergy, encouraged the king in thinking that his subjects would obey him in all things. James asked the judges to pronounce upon his dispensing power, and when a judge was found who would not agree that the king might do as he pleased, the judge was asked to resign,

and his place given to a less steadfast man. James then published a Declaration of Indulgence, giving liberty of worship to all his subjects.

209. Attack on the Universities.—The two great universities of Oxford and Cambridge were strongly Protestant. The professors and tutors had to subscribe to the Test Act. Roman Catholics and Dissenters might not go there, even as students. King James now ordered the fellows of Oxford to elect a Roman Catholic as head of a college. The fellows refused and were driven out of the college by the king, who put Roman Catholics in their places, thirteen in a single day. The fellows of the college were welcomed to the homes of wealthy men, who considered it an honour to receive them as guests.

210. Declaration of Indulgence.—As his first Declaration had been coldly received by the people, James

Second
Declaration
of Indul-
gence, 1688

decided on another, and ordered that on a certain Sunday the clergy should read it from their pulpits. Some obeyed, but many refused. In several cases the people walked out of the churches, and the declaration was read to empty benches. Seven bishops, headed by Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury, signed a petition to the king, praying him to recall the Indulgence. This so angered the king that he had the bishops charged with libel, although never before had any man in England heard that it was a libelous act to sign a petition.

211. The Trial of the Bishops.—When it was known that the bishops were to be tried, the people

went wild with excitement. The trial lasted for a whole day, and when the jury retired, the throngs of people were hushed to a silence almost breathless. Before a jury can give a verdict in a criminal case all twelve jurors must be of one mind. Among the jurors was one Arnold, the king's brewer. The poor man knew not what to do. He said, "If I find for the bishops, I shall brew no more for the king; and if I find for the king, I shall brew no more for any other person." One portly juror said that he would waste away to the size of a tobacco pipe before he would find the bishops guilty. After several hours a decision was reached, and when the foreman of the jury said "not guilty," the people raised a cheer that was taken up on the street and echoed all over London. Even the king's soldiers posted outside of the city took up the cheer, and showed that they were patriotic and not merely the king's fighting men.



THE BISHOPS BEFORE THE COUNCIL.

212. Invitation to William and Mary. — William of Orange was a grandson of Charles I, and moreover was married to Mary, the eldest daughter of King James. Many people were willing to bear with James, who was now fifty-five years old, because they believed that Mary on becoming queen would undo the work of her father and uphold the Protestant religion. James had married a second wife, and just after the



MEDAL STRUCK IN HONOUR OF THE BISHOPS.

bishops' trial a prince was born. As he was sure to be educated as a Roman Catholic, the people now began to lose hope of any better government. Seeing A prince born no other way to preserve their liberties, the leading men among both Whigs and Tories sent an invitation to William of Orange asking him to come with an army to protect the liberties of England.

213. Revolution of 1688. — For some weeks William could not get away because he was expecting a

war with Louis of France. When he did land at Torbay, in Devonshire, he met with no very warm reception. Gradually, however, the leading English nobles joined him. Mary's sister, the Princess Anne, and her husband, George of Denmark, left the king and fled to William's army. Lord Churchill also deserted the king with part of the royal ^{William's} troops. King James now offered to undo ^{welcome} his illegal acts, but it was too late. In despair the king fled, but was captured and brought back. He was allowed to escape again and went to France, where his cousin, Louis XIV, ^{King's flight} gave him a brotherly welcome. Although no blood had been shed, the Revolution of 1688 was accomplished. This Revolution scarcely disturbed the daily life of the English people, yet it made changes of great importance.

SECTION 6. WILLIAM AND MARY, 1688-1702

214. The Liberties of the People again Confirmed.—

When James II fled from London he threw the Great Seal into the Thames, hoping that no business could be legally carried on without it. The English people had never allowed mere formalities to interfere with them, nor did they do so now. As James II had dissolved Parliament and no legal Parliament could be summoned without a king's *writ*, the House of Lords asked William to send circular letters throughout the kingdom, calling upon the electors to choose delegates

for a Convention Parliament. This was done, and in the meantime William administered the government. When the Convention Parliament met, it drew up a Declaration of Rights, telling how James II had mis-

governed his people and forfeited his claim to the crown. It declared that no king of England

Declaration
of Rights,
1689

had any right to set aside the laws, to exact money, or to keep a standing army without the consent of Parliament. It declared that subjects were entitled to freedom of debate, to the



WILLIAM, PRINCE OF ORANGE.

right of petition, and to a merciful administration of the laws. The throne was now declared vacant and the crown offered to William and Mary. The English would have preferred to give the honour to Mary alone, but William refused to become his wife's subject, and Mary refused to rule unless William was made equal in power. It was also agreed that if William outlived Mary, he should rule as king until his death. Later in the same year when a regular

Parliament met, the Declaration became the Bill of Rights, and a clause was added declaring that in future English sovereigns must be Protestants. The Scottish Parliament took ^{Bill of Rights, 1689,} much the same action as that of England. William and Mary were declared king and queen; the Presbyterian religion was again set up, and the bishops driven out of their parishes.

215. Battle of Killiecrankie.—

The Highlanders were at this time in a lawless state. They lived partly by hunting and fishing, and partly by raising a little grain in the valleys between the mountains. They were divided into clans or tribes, and

they cared much more for their clan government than for any laws that might be made by either King James or King William. They had deadly feuds among themselves, but united when they made raids on the Saxons of the Lowlands to carry off droves



GRAHAM OF CLAVERHOUSE.

[Bonnie Dundee.]

of cattle and other plunder. Each clan had its peculiar dress. All spoke the Gaelic tongue. The open-air life and the rugged country produced a race of strong, brave men. Visitors always had a hearty welcome, and a Highlander would protect his most deadly enemy if he came as a guest.

John Graham of Claverhouse, also known as Viscount Dundee, who had been so active in persecuting the Covenanters, roused the clans to fight for King James. The leader of William's troops was moving from the Lowlands towards the Highlands,

¹⁶⁸⁹ Killiecrankie, and met Claverhouse just at the Pass of

Killiecrankie. The Highlanders with their broadswords swept all before them, but Dundee being killed, they made no use of their victory except to gather plunder.

216. Massacre of Glencoe. — King William now established outposts right in the Highland country, and gradually brought the clans into order. Their chiefs were given until December 31 of 1691 to take the oath of allegiance. All submitted except Ian, an old chief belonging to the Macdonalds of Glencoe. He was chief of a small clan, and thought it would be something to boast of, if he took the oath after all the great chiefs had taken it. On December 31 he came to take it, only to find that he had come to the wrong place, but as soon as possible he took the oath before the proper officer. His enemies, under pretence that it was necessary to make a terrible example, then obtained permission from William to punish

the whole of Ian's clan. Perhaps William did not understand the matter clearly, but at any rate, he signed the warrant. Soldiers went to the Macdonalds' village as visitors. They were heartily welcomed and were entertained by feasting and dancing. Suddenly one morning the visitors fell upon their hosts and cruelly murdered thirty of them. A few escaped only to perish in the mountains.

217. King James in Ireland. — The attempt of James II to establish Roman Catholics in places of trust had been a failure in England, but had easily succeeded in Ireland. Except in the North, where James I had established the colony of Ulster, the people of Ireland had never been affected by the Protestant Reformation. Just about Dublin were a few English Protestants, but the South was almost wholly Roman Catholic.

Tyrconnel, the Lord Deputy of Ireland, had a large army devoted to King James, and when James went from France to Ireland in 1689 he was joyously welcomed. The few Protestants in the South fled in terror, either to England or to the continent, while those of the North gathered at Enniskillen and Londonderry. Londonderry was besieged by James, but stood out valiantly. No person in the town was to speak the word *surrender* on pain of death. Starving people had to chew hides ; horses and dogs were delicacies. After the siege had lasted 105 days, three ships from England broke the boom across the Foyle River and brought food to the starving people.

William's best troops were fighting on the continent, but in 1690 he landed in Ireland with an army and overthrew James at the battle of the Boyne. An Englishman twitted an Irishman with defeat. "Change kings with us," said the brave Irishman, "and we will fight you again." ^{Battle of the Boyne, 1690} After this James II returned to France, and never again made any personal attempt to regain his crown. He maintained a small court at St. Germain, where he lived on the bounty of Louis XIV.

The war in Ireland was brought to a close by the treaty of Limerick. By this treaty the Irish were given some freedom in the exercise of their religion. But the treaty was never ratified by the Irish Parliament, composed as it was wholly of men of English blood, and many cruel laws were made to persecute the Irish Catholics.

218. Toleration Act. — Although at his coronation William took a solemn oath to protect the established church, he was determined there should be no persecution for religion. In 1689 Parliament passed the Toleration Act, which allowed Dissenters to worship in their own churches. Roman Catholics were not allowed the privilege until several years later.

219. Battle of La Hogue. — William was very unpopular in England. He was cold, gloomy, and stern. He did not know the English language very well. He made few real friends among the people, and he angered them by the favours he heaped upon Dutchmen. The English accepted him as king only

because they could do no better, and William ruled England, hoping to get English men and English money to fight Louis of France.

Some Englishmen, while pretending to be loyal to William, were really planning to aid James II, should he make any attempt to regain his crown. William knew this and it made him suspicious. Among others Lord Churchill, afterwards Duke of Marlborough, who had deserted James to aid William, now planned to betray William to James. His treason was discovered, and he was dismissed from office. Lord Russell, who had command of the fleet, was not very loyal to William, but he was truly patriotic, and when the French fleet appeared in the Channel to champion James II, Russell attacked it off La Hogue and completely destroyed the finest ships.

La Hogue,
1692

220. The Jacobites. — Besides those English whose loyalty to William was lukewarm, there were others who either openly or secretly refused him allegiance. These were the Jacobites or followers of King James, the Latin word for James being *Jacobus*. The Jacobites numbered among them many English and Scottish Catholics, together with those Protestants who really believed in the doctrine of "divine right" and "non-resistance."

221. Queen Mary. — It is said that when William married Mary he treated her very coldly, but he learned her true worth long before he became king of England. During William's absence in Holland

Mary ruled alone, and her government gave great satisfaction. In 1694 she fell ill of smallpox. In those days vaccination was unknown and the disease was often fatal. She died in a few days, leaving William heartbroken.

222. William and Louis XIV. — After the death of Mary, William was even less popular than before.



COSTUMES, TIME OF WILLIAM AND MARY.

The discovery of a Jacobite plot to murder him changed the feeling, and for a time the silent Dutch king was the idol of the people. Every year he crossed over to Holland to direct the war against Louis of France. The French had fine armies and great generals, but the English and Dutch controlled the ocean trade, and therefore could spare immense sums of money with less distress than the French.

William gave Louis several severe checks, and in 1697 the proud French king signed the treaty of Ryswick, by which he agreed to acknowledge William king of England and to cease to give aid to James Stuart.

Treaty of
Ryswick,
1697

223. Cabinet Government. — For some years the close advisers of the king had been called a *cabinet*, because they met in a small room instead of in a large council chamber. But this Cabinet was very different from a king's Cabinet of our day. The king's advisers were not in any way bound together; they did not have to be of the same opinion upon important questions. One member of the Cabinet might be a Whig and another a Tory. In short, the king chose his advisers wholly for personal reasons, and dismissed them without consulting Parliament.

The Bill of Rights strengthened the Commons and in theory gave it supreme power; but it had as yet no easy way of making its power felt. The Commons might impeach a king's minister before the Lords if he were especially obnoxious, but could hardly remove him simply because his policy was different from theirs. In extreme cases Parliament might get rid of a minister by a bill of attainder, but such a weapon could be used only upon rare occasions and when it seemed that the ends of justice could be served in no other way. Neither Whigs nor Tories had a steady majority in the Commons. If on Monday a hunting-party took threescore Tory members away to the country, the Whigs could pass

a certain measure; but on Friday the absence of a Whig sporting-party would give the Tories a chance to veto the same measure. In the meantime the king and his Cabinet would carry out their own ideas with very little reference to the Commons, who naturally resented a royal policy that paid little respect to their opinions.

About 1694 the Earl of Sunderland advised William to choose the members of his Cabinet entirely from the party having a majority in the Commons. William acted on the suggestion and formed a Whig Cabinet. The Whig Commoners now felt themselves closely connected with the veto of the king's Cabinet, and were willing to put up with great inconvenience rather than allow themselves to be outvoted. When the Whigs no longer had a majority in the Commons, William chose his Cabinet entirely from Tories, and the Tories in their turn were ready to give a hearty support to the king as long as his policy agreed with their views. In time we shall see that the king's place in the Cabinet was taken by a member of the Cabinet who became the king's prime minister. From that time the power of the people has been so firmly established that only by usurping their rights could a sovereign exercise any extended power.

224. The Coinage. — In the time of King William, gold and silver coins were almost the only money in use. There had been no reform in the coinage since the time of Elizabeth. If you look at a gold or silver coin now, you will find the edges ribbed or

"milled." In the old days the coins had smooth edges, and dishonest men would shave off thin strips around the coins, making them a little smaller. Often a shilling would not have more than 6d. or 9d. of silver, and merchants would refuse to accept it for its



GREAT SEAL OF WILLIAM AND MARY.

face value. Severe laws were passed to punish "clipping," but they had little effect because the offence was so common. Seven men were hanged in London in a single day for this offence. The trouble became so serious that the government melted the old coins and issued new ones having milled edges, like those now in use, and containing the full weight of silver or gold. The loss in weight between the old coins and the new was borne by the government and made good by a tax on windows. The poor man must pay for sunshine in his cottage, and the rich man who wished to have scores of windows in his palace must pay many times as much.

225. The Spanish Succession.—The king of Spain was old, feeble, and foolish. He had no children,

and William was anxious that his dominions should not be united with France, because France would then be powerful enough to encroach upon other nations. Louis XIV was so worn out with war that he signed a partition treaty by which he agreed that the crown of Spain should go to a Bavarian prince. This prince died, and a second partition treaty was signed by which the greater part of Spain was to go to a son of the emperor of Austria. When the king of Spain died in 1700 he left his crown to a grandson of Louis XIV. Immediately Louis refused to be bound by the partition treaty, and prepared to aid his grandson. William knew that he must fight now or his life-work would be undone. Few people in England felt like engaging in another war. Many of them did not believe that a union of France and Spain threatened England with any real danger. Just at this time James II died in France, and Louis immediately broke the treaty of Ryswick by acknowledging James's son king of England under the title of James III. This roused the English to a sense of their danger, and William found no difficulty in preparing for war.

226. Death of William III.—The Prince of Orange was not, however, to meet Louis again in battle. He had never been strong. In stature he was so small that he looked like a boy when he walked beside Queen Mary, who was tall and stout. An asthmatic cough had worn the king out, and when his horse stumbled over a mole-hill in Hampton

Park and broke his collar-bone, the shock was more than his frail strength could bear. He lingered a few days and died, recommending Anne to give Marlborough command of the army. For many years afterwards the Jacobites drank toasts in honour of the "gentleman in black velvet" as they called the mole.

227. Act of Settlement.—

About a year before the death of William, Parliament passed an act to settle the succession to the crown.

Act of Settlement, 1701

This was the more necessary because the Princess Anne had just lost the last of her nineteen children. It was agreed that if William died without children, the crown should go to Anne and to her children. Failing these it was to go to the Protestant heirs of Sophia of Hanover, who was a granddaughter of James I.



DANDY OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

SECTION 7. ANNE, 1702-1714

228. Popular with the People.—The Princess Anne had long been married to George of Denmark. Charles II once said he had tried George drunk and sober, and there was nothing in him. Anne

herself was dull and not at all queenly. She always depended upon others to guide her. William disliked her because of her intimacy with the Churchills, but among the common people who really knew very little about her, she was popular. In the first place, she was thoroughly English and sincerely attached to the established church. She was easy of approach and charitable towards the poor. The death of her children had touched the hearts of her subjects, and they were prepared to give her a warm welcome as queen.

229. Duke of Marlborough. — No other man of this period attracts so much attention as John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough. When William saw that war with France must come, he felt that Marlborough was the one Englishman who could lead an army against Louis XIV. Just before he died, William recommended Marlborough to Anne, and she was only too glad to confer a high appointment upon the husband of her dear Lady Churchill. At this period Anne was so much under the influence of her friend that we may almost call the Duchess of Marlborough the real queen of England. People used to say, "Queen Anne reigns but Queen Sarah rules."

Marlborough himself had a difficult task. He was the leader of the armies of the Grand Alliance, of which England and Holland were chief, and he could take no important line of action unless the allies were agreed. Many Englishmen did not see the need of spending money to fight Louis. The Dutch and

German allies did not always vote the necessary supplies. Marlborough had to coax one, flatter another, and threaten a third, and all this he did very successfully. He had a genius for war. The hotter the fight and the greater the danger, the cooler was his judgment. It is said that he never besieged a fortress he did not take, or fought a battle he did not win.

In 1704 the French invaded Austria. Marlborough joined Prince Eugene, and routed Louis's army at Blenheim, Blenheim,
1704

Twelve thousand French lay dead and four-



THE DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH.

teen thousand surrendered to the allies. For sixty years the French had been invincible on land. Blenheim shattered their reputation, and the allies were no longer afraid to fight them man for man. As the war went on, France became more and more exhausted and wished for peace. The allies would agree to peace only on condition that Louis should help to drive his grandson off the Spanish throne. "If I must wage war," said the old king, "I would

rather wage it against my enemies than against my children." The allies successively won Ramillies,

Ramillies,
1706, Oude-
narde, 1708,
Malplaquet,
1709

Oudenarde, and Malplaquet. Finally the peace party in England became so strong that the Whigs were turned out of office, and a Tory government formed. The war grew more and more unpopular, and the idea arose that Marlborough was its cause.



COACH IN THE TIME OF QUEEN ANNE.

After the battle of Blenheim, Parliament had given Marlborough a magnificent estate twelve miles in circumference, and in addition vast sums of money. Besides this, the Duchess of Marlborough drew £5000 a year from Anne, as Mistress of the Robes. Each of her daughters held some official position where the pay was high and the work easy. For several years Queen Anne and Sarah Churchill wrote each other the most familiar letters. They even adopted assumed names, that they might lay aside all difference of rank. Queen Anne was Mrs. Morley, and Lady Sarah was

Mrs. Freeman. These devoted friends quarrelled, and the duchess had to surrender her golden keys, which were the symbol of her office. Nor was this all. It was shown that Marlborough had accepted bribes from contractors, and had allowed them to supply the army with inferior goods. All this, while his family was drawing more than £60,000 a year of public money. No great man in England had ever shown such a grasping spirit. He was dismissed from his command, and left England in company with his wife.

230. Capture of Gibraltar. — While Marlborough was gaining victories by land, Sir George Rooke captured Gibraltar from Spain. It is said that the Spanish garrison was at a church service and that the English took advantage of its absence. The fortress has been gradually strengthened, until now it is the strongest in the world.

Gibraltar
captured,
1704

231. Occasional Conformity. — The queen was a bigoted churchwoman. She did not approve of Dissenters holding public offices. It had become quite common for them to conform to the Test Act by taking the sacraments in the established church, and then, after receiving public offices, to attend their own churches. This was called "occasional conformity," and a bill was passed by the Commons to make it illegal. The Whigs were in the majority in the House of Lords, and, as many of them were Dissenters, the bill was thrown out.

232. Union of England and Scotland.—Since 1603 the kings of Scotland had also been the kings of England, but the two nations had separate Parliaments. The Scottish Parliament refused to accept the Act of Settlement of 1701, and declared that

when Anne died they would choose a ruler to suit themselves. Wise men foresaw that if the two countries had different sovereigns, all the old wars and raids would likely be repeated. So it was decided to bring about a union that would make the two countries absolutely one, with a single Parliament.



QUEEN ANNE.

But this was no easy task because of the prejudices of both Scots and English. The Scots were very jealous of losing their independence. At the time of the union of the crowns in 1603, they had given England a king and their pride was gratified. But if they accepted the Act of Settlement, they would have to bow to a German king who would likely give them little attention. On the other hand, the

English were very jealous lest the Scots should share in their foreign commerce, or should injure English trade, by sending their goods across the Border.

All these difficulties were overcome, and both the Scottish and English Parliaments agreed to a union. The two countries were to be united under the name of Great Britain, with a single Parliament which was to have forty-five (now seventy-two) Scottish members in the Commons, and sixteen in the Lords. Act of Union, 1707 Scotland was to keep the Presbyterian form of worship, and was also to retain her own law courts. There was to be a new flag called the Union Jack, made by placing the Cross of St. George over the Cross of St. Andrew. The people of Scotland were to have free trade with England, and equal privileges in all British colonies.

Scotland immediately began to prosper as never before, and it was soon seen that the union benefited both peoples, although at the time many of the Scots felt very sore. One popular song said:—

“ Fareweel to a' our Scottish fame,
Fareweel our ancient glory,
Fareweel e'en to our Scottish name
Sae famed in martial story.”

Another song had reference to the story that the members of the Scottish Parliament were bribed to consent to the union.

“ What force or guile could not subdue
Through many warlike ages,
Is wrought now by a coward few
For hireling traitors' wages.

The English steel we could disdain,
Secure in valour's station ;
But English gold has been our bane ;
Such a parcel of rogues in a nation!"

From this time on we may never speak of either England or Scotland as a kingdom. We must say *Great Britain*.

233. Peace of Utrecht, 1713.—After the disgrace of Marlborough the Tories brought the war to a close by the treaty of Utrecht. Britain obtained Gibraltar and Minorca in Europe, while in America she received Acadia, Newfoundland, and the Hudson Bay Territory. She was also to have a monopoly of the slave trade with the Spanish colonies in America.

234. Social Progress and Customs.—It is difficult for us to picture the England of two hundred years ago. The population was about equal to that of London to-day. There were no large factories, no steamboats, no canals, no railways, not even good roads. Coaches were coming into use, but people of quality usually travelled in sedan chairs. Wool was extensively raised and made into cloth in the same valleys where the sheep pastured. The hum of the spinning-wheel and the click of the shuttle made music in every cottage. Even children of six or eight years were taught to earn their own living. Eleven hundred looms were going in Taunton alone. Stockings, introduced in the time of Elizabeth, were becoming common in the reign of Anne, and some nine thousand stocking-looms were in operation.

Some iron was smelted, but only by charcoal, and this took so much wood that the smelting business was unpopular. Very few articles of iron were made in Britain; even frying-pans and anvils were imported. Coarse pottery was becoming common, but the peasants still ate off wooden trenchers. Fine porcelain was brought from Holland for the wealthy classes.

The peasants lived in miserable hovels with mud floors and thatched roofs. They received less than one shilling a day, and in summer worked from 5 A.M. to 7.30 P.M., with two hours off for meals. They had few comforts, wore coarse homespun clothes, ate no wheat bread, never tasted tea or coffee, and had meat perhaps twice a week. They were ignorant and often vicious; their pleasures were coarse but hearty—country fairs, pedlers, dances, wrestling matches, and foot-races. They often had grinning matches, when the prize went to the one who could make the most hideous faces with his head thrust through a horse collar. Once every year a gaping match was held, when a fine Cheddar cheese was given to the one who could make the widest yawn.

The middle classes, chiefly farmers, tradesmen, and owners of small manufactories, lived in rude plenty. Their homes were comfortable, even luxurious. They received some education and made steady progress. A fine beau of the day is a good type of the idle class. From ten o'clock until one he received visits in bed, wearing a powdered wig, and taking a pinch of snuff or a whiff at a smelling bottle. By three

o'clock he was dressed, had perfumed his clothes and perhaps tinted his cheeks with carmine. He now dipped his handkerchief in rose water, carefully tied his cravat, cocked his hat upon his head, and sallied

out in his chair to a coffee-house, there to listen to the latest gossip of the court and the street.

Tea had not yet become common, but coffee and chocolate were popular drinks, and houses where they were sold became favourite meeting-places for all classes of



FASHIONABLE LADY IN THE TIME OF
QUEEN ANNE.

people. Newspapers were as yet few and gave very little news. The coffee-houses were centres of gossip and conversation.

235. Great Writers.—The Queen Anne period had no really great poets. Pope was a fine verse-maker, and his "Essay on Man" contains many clever couplets. The great writers of this age wrote prose, and one of them, Addison, is still considered one of our most perfect writers of easy, graceful paragraphs. In company with Steele, Addison founded the *Tatler* and the *Spectator*. These were small sheets, giving very little news of the day. They dealt in a playful

way with such subjects as "Superstitions," "Grinning," "Female Vanity," "True Wit," and "Pin Money." Dean Swift was a clergyman, who wrote both prose and verse, but is best remembered as the author of "Gulliver's Travels." Defoe wrote some very clever political pamphlets. In one he made fun of the High Church party by proposing that all Dissenters be banished and their clergymen hanged. This was considered a libel, and Defoe was fined and sentenced to stand in the pillory. It was usual in that age to pelt such offenders with mud and stones, but Defoe was garlanded with flowers and supplied with food and drink. We know him best as the writer of "Robinson Crusoe."

CHAPTER VIII

HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK

SECTION I. GEORGE I, 1714-1727

236. A German King.—Anne died suddenly of apoplexy, and, although the Jacobites had long been plotting to have James, the Pretender, succeed to the crown, their plans were not matured. George I, who was the son of Sophia, the Electress of Hanover, was in no hurry to leave his German home. He owed his crown in Britain entirely to the Act of Settlement, and the people gave him a very cold welcome. They were prepared to accept him rather than a

A thorough German Stuart prince, who was a Roman Catholic; they were not prepared to make much ado over a German king, who could speak no word of English. George meant well. He was honest, and on the whole, kind-hearted, although he kept his wife shut up for thirty-two years, until she died, in her castle-prison of Ahlen. He did not understand the English people, and spent the greater part of his reign in visits to Hanover.

237. A King's Council without a King.—Before this time, English sovereigns had always been present at Council meetings, in fact, had been the

real leaders in such meetings. Every sovereign had called around him some minister or ministers more able than the others, yet up to this time no minister had ever been called a first or prime minister. As George I could not talk with his ministers, he did not attend their meetings, and as a meeting must have a leader, the custom soon arose of calling one of the king's advisers

**The first
"Prime
Minister"**

the prime minister. Sir Robert Walpole was the first minister to take this title. The king's ministers found they could talk more freely and transact business better when by themselves, and thus it came about that no British sovereign ever again attended a Council meeting.

238. The Jacobite Rebellion. — George I dismissed the Tory ministers and put Whigs in their places, and for the next fifty years the Whigs held power without a break. Although George I was not popular, yet the mass of the people were satisfied. Jacobite sentiment was strongest in Scotland and in northern England, and it was there that the Pretender, who styled himself Jacobite Re-bellion, 1715 James III, made an attempt to win the crown. He landed in person, but the more his friends saw of him



SIR ROBERT WALPOLE.

the less they liked him. When the time for battle came, James sailed away to France, leaving his dupes to shift for themselves. Several suffered death for their treason.

239. Septennial Act. — The Triennial Act of William III fixed three years as the life of a Parliament. The Whig ministers were afraid to bring on an election after the rebellion of 1715, because they feared that in the excitement they might be defeated, so Parliament passed an act declaring that its life might be extended to seven years. This law is still in force, but a British Parliament seldom lasts its full period.

240. South Sea Bubble. — Big stories were told by sailors about the wealth of the Spanish colonies in South America. Common rumour said that it was a country where riches could be gathered as easily as apples from trees. By the treaty of Utrecht the British were largely shut out from this trade, but that made the people only the more ready to believe in its greatness. A company, called the South Sea Company, was formed to trade in the southern seas. The company proposed that, if it were given a monopoly of this trade by the government, it would pay off a large part of the national debt. Walpole warned the public that the company could never fulfil its promises. People were eager to buy the stock, and £100 shares rose to £1000. Other wild schemes were proposed. None were too absurd to secure subscribers. Even widows and retired clergymen invested

their last pound. One company flourished on a proposal to make fresh water out of ocean water; a second planned to make butter from beech trees; a third proposed to make great profits by importing



PLoughing with OXEN IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

a fine breed of mules from Spain. When the excitement was at its height, the South Sea Company's shares fell to their original value. Thousands were ruined, and the distress would have been yet greater had not Walpole come to the rescue. The king's ministers were blamed for encouraging the South Sea Company. One was sent to the Tower and another poisoned himself.

241. Sir Robert Walpole. — The real ruler of Britain was Robert Walpole. Under Anne the Whigs were for war; under Walpole they clung to peace. Walpole believed that the nation needed a period of rest that she might develop her resources. Commerce was being extended, better methods of farming were being put into practice, and large manufactories were springing up in the towns. Walpole was especially

shrewd and successful in managing money affairs. He placed the finances in better shape by removing export duties on one hundred articles, and import duties on some forty articles. This encouraged trade and lessened smuggling.

As a man Walpole was like his age, coarse, cynical, and profligate. He had no sympathy with scholarly

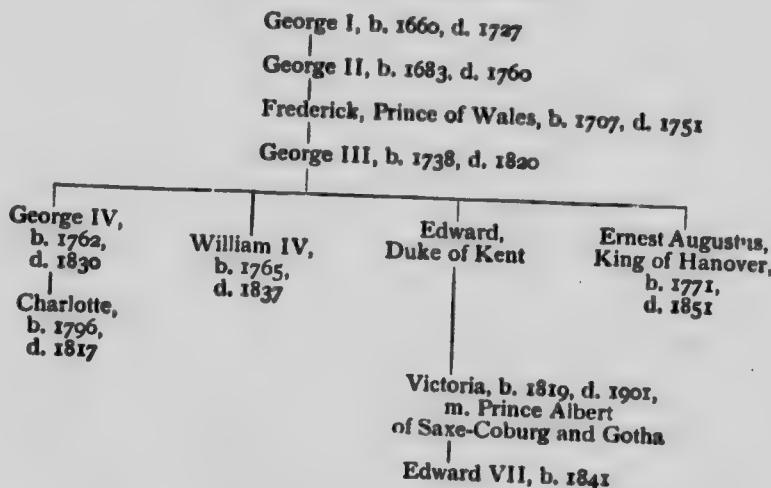


COSTUMES AND SEDAN CHAIR, 1720.

men and did nothing to encourage learning. To keep peace and let Britain grow rich was his motto. He did not take public money for himself, but he did not hesitate to use it to bribe others. He openly said that every man had his price. He lived anything but the life of a true gentleman, although in this respect he was no worse than thousands of his countrymen and quite as good as his German master. His rule was a one-man rule. He was so

jealous of a rival that he could not bear to have in his Cabinet any man of real ability. For this reason there grew up a strong opposition, composed largely of Whigs. Many of these were young men whom Walpole called "the boys," while their admirers called them "Patriots."

VII. HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK



SECTION 2. GEORGE II, 1727-1760

242. Queen Caroline and Walpole.—George II was no less German than his father, but had the advantage of being able to speak English. Everybody expected to see a new prime minister, because the king disliked Walpole. Without knowing it the king was managed in most things by his clever wife, Queen Caroline, who believed that Walpole was easily the best man in Britain to guide the Parliament. As long as the queen lived Walpole was safe.

243. Spanish War. — By the treaty of Utrecht the British trade with Spanish America was limited to a single vessel each year. This pleased neither the Spanish planters nor the British traders. The latter were eager to extend a trade which brought them large fortunes; the former were always ready to buy goods from merchants who gave better prices than those who sent goods direct from Spain. So it was no wonder that a large smuggling trade grew up along the shores of South America, Mexico, and the Spanish West Indies. The Spanish government put coastguards along its shores in America to catch the smugglers, and several British subjects were caught and punished. Tales of Spanish cruelty were told at the London taverns, and the English were aroused as before the coming of the Armada.

When this feeling was at its height, a man named Jenkins appeared at the bar of the Commons and carefully unwrapped a small box, taking out what he said was his ear. He further declared that it had been cut off in the West Indies by the Spaniards, who bade him carry it to his king. It was easy to see that the man had lost an ear, and his story was readily believed, although it is quite possible the man was a rascal who had lost his ear for theft or some other crime. Such stories made the people so eager for war that Walpole had to give in. War was declared, and the bells rang for joy, but Walpole told the people they would soon be wringing their hands for grief.

War of Jen-
kins's ear,
1739

In those days a prime minister did not always resign when his policy was defeated, and Walpole entered upon a war in which he had no faith. The result was that when things went wrong the blame fell upon the minister. So loud were the complaints that Walpole resigned in 1742.

244. The Methodists. — Two brothers, John and Charles Wesley, students at Oxford, began to attract much attention by their meetings, among students, for prayer and religious exercises. So regular were they in their hours and habits of devotion that they were given the nickname of "Methodists." They prayed with the sick and made an effort to teach the truths of the Bible to the poor and outcast.



JOHN WESLEY.

There was much need of this work. The Dissenters, who included Baptists, Presbyterians, and Quakers, were far from being as earnest and godly as they had been a century before. In many cases the clergy of the established church were worldly and without any real influence upon their people. A Frenchman visiting England wrote home, "In the higher circles here every one laughs if one talks of religion." No new parishes had been created for a century and a half.

Scotland had efficient schools, but England had none, except those founded by Edward VI and Elizabeth. The lower orders of the people were ignorant and vicious. A few of the clergy were simple, earnest men, who spent their lives in deeds of kindness. A few were both good and learned. Many were worldly and ignorant.

Bishops were often favourites of the Whig ministers, and appointed solely to draw the large incomes attached to their sees. One bishop boasted that he had never been near his diocese.

Clergymen often held two or more churches, and lived at ease in town, leaving their pastoral duties to curates who were paid £10 or £15 a year. Many of the country clergymen read prayers on Sunday, and spent the rest of the week in idle gossip and fox-hunting. The people, who were very worldly themselves, had largely lost respect for their spiritual leaders. A clergyman, unless of high rank, was scarcely treated as a gentleman. He could hardly hope to marry a wife of higher rank than a waiting-maid. He was expected to say grace at his lord's table and share the meal, but he often received a hint to retire before the pudding was served.

The labouring poor were quite neglected, especially in the rapidly growing towns and mining districts. Thousands of them never went to church and were under the care of no regular clergyman. They were treated scarcely as human beings. Ignorant, dirty, ragged, and poorly

Mass of the
people igno-
rant

Bishops were
more place-
hunters

Social rank of
the clergy

Labouring
classes de-
graded

housed, their lives were a cheerless, hopeless grind. Drunkenness was a common vice of the people.

The Wesleys preached no new doctrine; they had no desire even to withdraw from the established church. Their aim was to arouse every individual to a sense of his personal need of salvation. George Whitfield joined them, and his eloquence sometimes drew together in the mining districts where he laboured twenty thousand colliers, many of whom were melted to tears. As the regular clergy opposed their work, the Wesleys gathered their followers into societies, and accepted the name of "Methodists." The clergy of the established church soon became aroused to the need of more sincere work, and in a few years they, too, were earnestly helping the poor and afflicted.

*The Wesleys
and
Whitfield*

245. War of Austrian Succession. — The war with Spain had scarcely begun when Britain became mixed up in a war on the continent. Shortly before his death, Charles VI, Emperor of Germany, secured the consent of his subject princes to an arrangement by which his crown would pass to his daughter, Maria Theresa. When the emperor died, the promises were forgotten, and a grab was made for his dominions. Britain entered the field to support Maria Theresa, largely because France was giving aid to Maria's enemies. George II led an army composed of British and Hanoverians, and defeated the French at Dettingen, 1743, the last time a British sovereign led an army in person.

246. The Young Pretender, "Prince Charlie."—The Jacobites had been quiet for thirty years. Now that England was busy on the continent, it was

thought a good time to attempt another rising. This time Prince Charles, a son of the Old Pretender, James, landed in Scotland, and with only seven followers set up the Stuart colours on behalf of his father. There were in Scotland many men who could not forget



CHARLES EDWARD STUART.

that the Stuarts had been their kings since the time of Bruce. A popular song expressed the feelings of thousands:—

"I swear by moon and stars sae bright,
And the sun that glances early,
If I had twenty thousand lives,
I'd gie them a' for Charlie."

"We'll over the water and over the sea,
We'll over the water to Charlie;
Come weel come woe, we'll gather and go,
And live and die wi' Charlie."

The Highlanders rallied round Charles Edward, and he soon had a strong force. Edinburgh opened its gates, and the old city was again the scene of royal banquets and gay balls. King George's forces were badly beaten at Preston Pans.

The Young Pretender now had six thousand men, and with these he crossed into England and went as far south as Derby. Few joined him, and he returned to Scotland because he feared the English would surround him. He won another victory at Falkirk, but a little later was followed to the Highlands, and defeated at Culloden Moor, where King George's troops were led by his second son, the Duke of Cumberland. The Highlanders charged gallantly, but were mowed down by the king's cannon. The prince escaped with difficulty, and for some months he lay in hiding among the Highlands. A reward of £30,000 was offered for his head, but, to their everlasting honour, the poor Highlanders proved faithful.

At a critical moment Flora Macdonald saved the prince's life by dressing him up as her maid-servant. After many adventures, he reached France safely. His later life was one of dissipation, although he lived until 1788. His brother Henry became a cardinal in the church of Rome, and died in 1807, the last legitimate male heir of the Stuarts.

247. End of the Clan System.—After the battle of Culloden, Cumberland treated the Highlanders with such awful severity that he won the name of

"Butcher Cumberland." Strict laws were passed to break up the clan system. Even the wearing of the Highland dress was forbidden. A little later the Highlanders were given a chance to enlist in the British army, and ever after, whether up the cliff at Quebec, over the snows of the Crimea, through the passes of Afghanistan, or over the rocky veldt of South Africa, the Highlanders have been in the van with the British colours.

248. The British Empire in the West. — The British Empire is like a giant oak. It was not made; it grew. Perhaps no British statesman has ever actually planned to increase the Empire. The growth has come little by little and often unexpectedly. In almost every case British merchants and British sailors have been the pioneers in founding colonies. They have started industries and established settlers, and then Great Britain has acquired the territory in order to protect her subjects.

By 1750 Great Britain had thirteen colonies in North America, all lying along the Atlantic Ocean,

British pos-
sessions in
America and nearly all founded by people who had left Britain that they might enjoy more liberty. Besides these, Britain claimed Newfoundland, Acadia, and the Hudson Bay Territory. Canada, stretching along the St. Lawrence and Great Lakes, and Louisiana at the mouth of the Mississippi, belonged to the French, who also claimed all the land west of the Alleghanies lying between Canada and Louisiana.

The British settlers along the Atlantic were quite unwilling to be shut in between the mountains and the sea. They were especially anxious to have a share in the rich fur trade around the Upper Ohio and the Great Lakes. So when the French began to build a line of forts connecting the Great Lakes with Louisiana, it was quite natural that the British settlers in America should object. Both nations built forts in the Ohio Valley, and in 1754 the war broke out.

French forts
from Canada
to Louisiana

249. Defeat of Braddock.—In the next year Britain sent out General Braddock to Virginia. The plan was that Braddock should lead a strong force of regulars and colonial militia across the mountains and capture Fort Duquesne from the French. Braddock was a good soldier but stubborn and ignorant. He despised the colonial militia, and refused to take advice from those who knew the country and the methods of bush-fighting. At a dinner-party in Virginia, the night before the expedition set out, a British officer said, "There's some sort of inns, I suppose; not so comfortable as in England, we can't expect that." "No, you can't expect that," slyly said a colonial. Braddock took miles of baggage and sent men ahead to make roads. When near Fort Duquesne a conflict took place and the brave old general fell mortally wounded, saying, "We shall know better how to manage them next time." The army was saved from complete destruction, but the British lost enormous quantities of supplies and some valuable papers.

250. William Pitt and the Seven Years' War, 1756-1763. — Although Braddock was fighting in the Ohio Valley, war was not actually declared between France and Britain until the next year. Even then the British in America made no progress. The French general, Montcalm, was more than a match for them.



WILLIAM Pitt, EARL OF CHATHAM.

It was plain that on the whole the British leaders were incompetent. They obtained their appointments through influence and not because of merit.

Just at this time William Pitt became the leading British minister, and his influence was soon felt.

Pitt, the "Great Commoner" Pitt had been called the "Boy Patriot"; he now came to be called the "Great Commoner" because he had his chief support from the common people. Frederick the Great of

Prussia said of him, "England has at length brought forth a man." Pitt was very unselfish. He had great faith in his country, and he never doubted her power to "scatter her enemies." "I know I can save this country," he said, "and no one else can." In the army he worked a reformation. He began by dismissing incompetent officers and promoting young men of ability, even though they were poor and unknown.

251. Canada becomes British. — Large forces and skilful generals were at once sent to America. In 1758 Amherst captured Louisburg, the great French stronghold on Cape Breton Island. In the next year a vigorous campaign was begun and Canada was attacked from three different directions. To General Wolfe was entrusted the difficult task of capturing Quebec. Wolfe was a young man, but Pitt had already marked him out as a leader of men.

The brave Montcalm, the leader of the French forces, was making a desperate stand. For months Wolfe battered the old town with shells. Autumn was drawing on and winter would drive the British away. When almost in despair, Wolfe discovered a cliff above Quebec, up which it seemed possible to climb. He formed his plans and moved his army up the river during the night. The cliff was scaled and Montcalm marched out of the walled town to meet his enemy on the Plains of Abraham. The British held their fire until the French were only

James Wolfe

forty paces distant, and then poured in a deadly volley. The battle was quickly over and the British

Battle of the
Plains of
Abraham,
1759 had won, but at a great sacrifice. The brave young Wolfe and his gallant enemy,

Montcalm, were both mortally wounded.

The next day Quebec surrendered, and in the follow-

ing year Britain acquired the whole of Canada.

But it was not in America alone that the genius of Pitt was bearing fruit. The French were routed at Minden by an allied English and German force. On the sea Admiral Hawke won lasting fame for himself and almost ruined the French fleet; for six months he



A black and white portrait engraving of General James Wolfe. He is shown from the chest up, wearing a powdered wig and a military uniform with a plumed hat. He has a serious expression and is looking slightly to the right of the viewer.

GENERAL WOLFE.

doggedly blockaded the French in Brest only to allow them to escape during a terrible storm. Nothing daunted, he followed them even among the rocks and shoals off the French coast. "Where there is passage for the enemy, there is passage for me; where a Frenchman can sail, an Englishman can follow,"

said Hawke, "their pilot shall be our pilot; if they go to pieces on the shoals they will serve as beacons for us, their perils shall be our perils."

252. The Empire in the East. — From the time of Elizabeth the East India Company had been carrying on a thriving trade in India. The company had three principal forts or factories: on the east, Madras; on the west, Bombay, which was a part of the dowry Katherine of Braganza brought to Charles II; in the north, Fort William, named after William of Orange, and afterwards called Calcutta. At each of these forts, the company kept a small force of native or sepoy soldiers under English officers. India was governed by native princes to whom the company paid a yearly tribute for trading privileges. The native princes in turn owed obedience and tribute to the Great Mogul of India. The French also had a trading-post in India at Pondicherry, and about 1748 Dupleix, the French governor, formed ^{French in India} a plan by which he hoped to stir up the native princes against Britain and drive the British East India Company out of Asia. The French threatened Madras and the British were fearful of the result.

253. Robert Clive. — Some few years before this, a wild, reckless lad named Robert Clive had been sent to India as a clerk by friends ^{Clive a clerk} who were glad to get rid of him. Clive had the instincts of a great soldier, and when the French captured Madras, he resigned his clerkship and put himself at the head of a body of troops. Under Clive

the forces of the East India Company seized Arcot in 1751, because the ruler of that district was plotting with France. The British held out stubbornly, and inspired the native soldiers with a respect for their strength and skill. The sepoys even gave the British their last rations of rice, while living themselves upon the water in which the rice was boiled. The French were checked and Dupleix was recalled.



ROBERT, LORD CLIVE.

Clive now made a journey to England, but returned to Madras in 1756, just in time to receive the most startling news. Surajah Dowlah, Nabob of Bengal, a cruel, drunken tyrant, had attacked Calcutta and captured one

hundred and forty-six English. These had been imprisoned during a hot summer night in a room twenty feet square. No pen can picture the horrible sufferings of that night in the "Black Hole."

In the morning only twenty-three haggard, half insane wretches were alive. Hastening from Madras, Clive called a council of war. The Nabob had 60,000 men, while the force of Clive was about 3000. The general opinion among the British was that they could not afford to risk a battle. But upon further consideration, Clive's courage rose and he put his troops in

Clive a
soldierThe Black
Hole, 1756Battle of
Plassey,
1757

motion. On the following morning, on the Plains of Plassey, he won a victory that gave Britain control of a great part of northern India.

SECTION 3. GEORGE III, 1760-1820

254. Determined to Rule as well as Reign. — Just when the Empire was being extended over two continents, George II died, and was succeeded by his grandson, George III. Britain has been ruled by worse men than George III, but has never had a king who caused more trouble, nor one who did more to hinder the progress of his people. When he was yet a boy, his foolish mother would often say to him, "George, be king!" and during his long reign of sixty years, he earnestly strove to make himself the actual ruler of Britain. He did not wish to be a tyrant. Perhaps no king ever had a more honest desire to do well by his people. The Whig nobles had ruled Britain by means of open bribery for fifty years, and George III naturally thought that his own right to secure power in such a manner was quite as good as theirs.

On several occasions he declared to his ministers that he would leave the kingdom and retire to Hanover, rather than give up his own plans. One minister told him that he might easily retire to Hanover, but that he might find it more difficult to return to Britain. Instead of being guided by great statesmen, such as Pitt, the young king wished to be his

own prime minister, and often he had to accept as his advisers very inferior men, because able men would not serve unless they might also rule.

255. Peace of Paris.—An opportunity soon offered by which George III got rid of Pitt. The Whigs had been in power so long that they were split into factions. Many of them still clung to Walpole's policy of peace, and were anxious to see the war closed. Pitt wished to attack Spain, because he had news of a secret treaty between that country and France. The king refused to support the Great Commoner, and forced him to resign. The Londoners showed their love for Pitt by stopping his coach, hugging his footmen, and even kissing his horses. "Pitt disgraced is worth two victories to us," wrote a Frenchman. By the peace treaty, Britain won Canada and Cape Bre-

Peace of
Paris, 1763 ton from France, and Florida from Spain. In India, the French abandoned all claim to military settlements.

256. American Revolution.—Britain's thirteen English-speaking colonies in America, numbering two millions, enjoyed a very large measure of freedom. In fact, they governed themselves, except in so far as Britain regulated their trade and commerce. European nations did not consider what was or was not good for their colonies. They thought only of what was good for the mother country. Colonies were desirable because of their trade, or because they offered a convenient place to which troublesome subjects might emigrate.

Ever since the time of Cromwell there had been restrictions upon the trade of the British colonies in America. They must sell their produce — ^{Navigation Laws} sugar, indigo, rice, cotton, tobacco, timber, and furs — in Britain, and buy from her all their imports. They might not send a ship to the West



GEORGE III.

Indies, or even to Ireland. They might not send wool from one colony to another. They must buy their hats in Britain, even though they trapped the beaver out of which the hats were made. They might not smelt iron, nor print Bibles, nor sell a British sailor more than a few shillings' worth of clothes. These vexatious laws were not strictly enforced, and a smuggling trade with the Spanish colo-

nies and the British West Indies was carried on almost openly.

The Seven Years' War cost many millions, and left Britain with a heavy debt. As the war had been waged partly to protect the British colonies in America, the king and his ministers now proposed to tax the colonies for a portion of the cost. At the same time, the Navigation Laws were to be strictly enforced. In 1765 the Stamp Act became law. It declared that all legal documents, such as deeds, mortgages, and marriage contracts, must bear stamps purchased from the British government. The colonists protested, and sent Benjamin Franklin with a petition to the British Parliament. "We will tax ourselves," said Franklin, "but will pay no taxes imposed by any outside authority." The next year the Stamp Act was repealed, but the right to tax was asserted.

In 1767 the king and his ministers levied a new import duty on tea, glass, paper, and paint. The colonies again protested, and in 1770 all the duties

Import duties were removed, except one of 3d. a pound on tea. The king said, "There must always be one tax, to keep up the right." It was just this "right" that the colonists were determined to resist. The tax itself was very small, and yielded the British government only £300 a year.

The people solemnly agreed not to use the taxed tea, and when the *Dartmouth*, an East India ship,

laden with tea, sailed into Boston harbour, there was great excitement. The captain was asked not to land his cargo, and when he refused to return to London, a company of young men, disguised as Indians, went on board the ship and emptied the tea into the sea.

The British government now took away the charter of Massachusetts and closed the port of Boston. Preparations were made to send troops to America. Pitt, who had been made Earl of Chatham, protested against driving the colonies into rebellion. "I urge recalling the troops from Boston. Resistance to your acts was necessary and just. You cannot force them; it is impossible. Let us retract when we can, not when we must. The acts must be repealed. I pledge myself for it that in the end you will repeal them," said Chatham. Fox and Burke also spoke eloquently against the war. The people were decidedly against the war, but the Parliament was controlled by the king and a ministry who were his creatures. The common people had no voice in Parliament. They could only express their disapproval of "The King's War."

The colonies, except Georgia, now sent delegates to a congress at Philadelphia to discuss measures for protection. This congress decided to meet force by force, and accordingly, the colonial militia was organised and placed under George Washington, a gentleman of large estates in Virginia.

Blood was shed at Lexington and Bunker's Hill

during 1775, and the feeling against Britain grew more and more bitter. Delegates met again in Philadelphia in 1776, and drew up a Declaration of Independence. This declaration was adopted after a long debate, and signed by delegates from each of the thirteen colonies. By this act the colonists shut off all hope of a peaceful reconciliation.



GEORGE WASHINGTON.

other contests, could not get enough soldiers in Britain, so Hessian troops were hired from a German prince, who was glad to get money by selling the services of his subjects. These troops were fierce, cruel, and drunken, and they brought no glory to the British arms. But the colonists, in spite of their determination, lost in many engagements. Their men were poorly equipped and sometimes on the point of starvation. At one time there was scarcely a whole pair of shoes in the camp. Some of the colonies

The Americans sent an army into Canada in 1775, hoping to persuade the French to join them. The expedition met with no success, and the general in command, Montgomery, was killed during an attack on Quebec.

Americans in Canada

King George, taken up as the country was with

were slow and niggardly about voting supplies, and in some there were many Royalists who stood out for Britain and fought for their king. Only the heroic spirit of Washington kept up the courage of the men. In 1777, however, General Burgoyne was hemmed in by the Americans at Saratoga, and was compelled to surrender with six thousand men. This put new life into the colonists, but made George III no less determined to conquer his stubborn subjects.

In 1778 France joined America against Britain. The help was very welcome to the colonists, as it gave them the aid of a considerable fleet, and so far they had been able to do very little towards matching Britain on the seas. In Britain ^{France aids America} the interference of France was greatly resented. The old Earl of Chatham fell in a fit of apoplexy while protesting against any submission so long as France aided America. Spain joined France and made a determined but unsuccessful effort to retake Gibraltar. All Europe seemed leagued against Britain. But little by little the Americans were gaining, and in 1781 Lord Cornwallis ^{Cornwallis surrenders, 1781} was hemmed in at Yorktown between the French fleet and Washington's army. His surrender practically closed the war. Lord North resigned and left a Whig ministry to make peace.

By the treaty of Versailles, signed in 1783, Britain acknowledged the independence of the colonies. Florida was given to Spain, but ^{Peace of Versailles, 1783} France got nothing. Of all the British colonies in

North America, Canada, Nova Scotia, the Hudson Bay Territory, and Newfoundland alone remained.

257. United Empire Loyalists. — Although Britain had been defeated, she still retained the affections and allegiance of thousands of her subjects in the thirteen colonies, who, during the war, had remained loyal, and had fought side by side with soldiers from Britain. At the close of the war these United Empire Loyalists, as they were afterwards proudly called, found themselves in a very unpleasant and dangerous situation. Their cause was lost, their lands forfeited, their very lives in danger.

From the very day of the Declaration of Independence they had been a marked people. The several colonies put in force severe laws against them. John Adams of Boston, the chief advocate of independence, in a letter written from Holland in 1780, says of the Loyalists: "I think their career might have been stopped if the executive officers had not been too timid upon a point which I so strenuously recommended at the first — namely to fine, imprison and hang all inimical to the cause without favour or affection. I foresaw the evil that would follow from that quarter and wished to have timely stopt it. I would have hanged my own brother had he taken part with our enemy in the contest." When a leading public man held such sentiments, it is easy to understand the ill-treatment given the Loyalists by the rabble. The American Congress promised Britain to recommend the several state governments to deal honour-

ably with the Loyalists. The promise meant nothing and was grossly violated in spirit. The state governments imposed vexatious fines and allowed mobs to tar and feather those whose only crime was loyalty to their motherland.

The Loyalists appealed to Britain for aid, and were told that money and homes would be given them in Canada, which still remained a British colony. From 1783 until the close of the eighteenth century thousands of Loyalists settled north of the Great Lakes, and along the St. Lawrence River; others settled in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. The nucleus of a younger Britain was laid. The Loyalists formed the advance guard of a people who, without sacrificing their allegiance to the Empire, have won a freedom quite as perfect as that enjoyed by the descendants of those who broke away from British rule in 1776.

258. John Wilkes. — Wilkes was a member of the Commons who won the sympathy of the people because he fought for three important reforms — the illegality of general warrants, the right to freedom of election, and the freedom of the press. His private life was immoral, but the people were prepared to make a hero of any man who opposed the tyranny of the king and his ministers.

Free elections, a free press, and no general warrants.

Wilkes criticised the king's speech in No. 45 of the *North Briton*. In 1763 he was arrested on a *general warrant*, that is, a warrant in which no name was

inserted. He was soon liberated, and secured damages in the courts on the ground that as a member of Parliament he was free from arrest.

A little later general warrants were declared illegal, but Wilkes was now proceeded against as a libeller, and expelled from Parliament. He escaped to France, but coming home in 1768, was elected member for Middlesex. After being elected and expelled several times, the Commons declared him incapable of election and gave¹ the seat to his opponent, who had secured very few votes. This was a blow at the right to freedom of election, and the electors made a hero of Wilkes. The London mob took his part, and made noblemen illuminate their houses with No. 45 in reference to Wilkes's newspaper article. The Austrian ambassador was roughly taken from his coach and "45" marked on the soles of his boots.

In the end Wilkes was imprisoned on the charge of libel, but when he came out he was elected alderman of London, and later was again elected to Parliament. As a magistrate of London, he refused to punish the printers who published reports of the Commons, and ever since the papers have been allowed to publish such reports. Bribery in the Commons soon disappeared, because when members knew that speeches and votes would be published, they dared not go against the wishes of those who elected them.

259. Lord George Gordon.—In 1778 Parliament passed an act repealing some of the most oppressive statutes against Roman Catholics. When Parliament

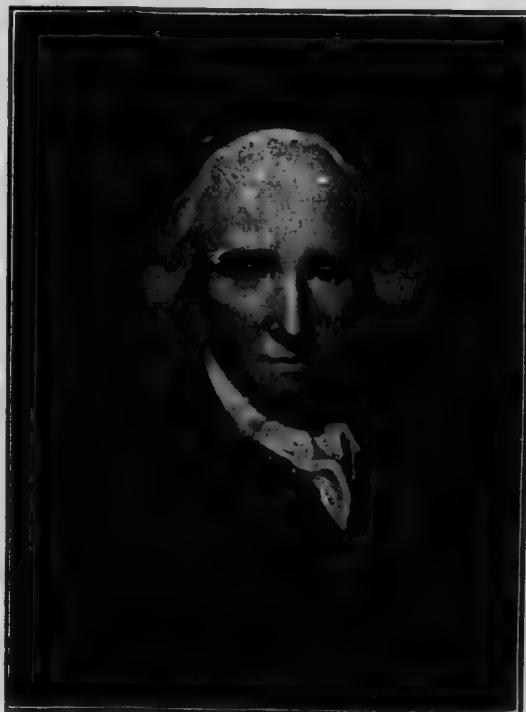
met in 1780 Lord George Gordon, a violent, half-crazy Scotsman, presented a petition for the repeal of the act of 1778. A mob of sixty thousand followed Gordon through London, tearing down and pillaging Roman Catholic chapels and the houses of judges and magistrates. At one time it was feared that the mob would take possession of the Houses of Parliament, but quiet was restored by the king's troops.

260. Irish Home Rule. — Ireland had a Parliament, but it scarcely deserved the name. In the first place, it was elected only by those who were members of the established church. Roman Catholics and Protestant Dissenters, who made up more than nine-tenths of the population, were not allowed to vote. In the second place, this Irish Parliament could pass no bill unless the bill had previously been agreed to by the British Privy Council. Britain regulated Irish trade as jealously as she had tried to regulate that of America. Ireland was a grazing country, but her farmers were not allowed to export cattle to Britain for fear of injuring the British farmers' trade. While the American war was going on and there was some fear of a French invasion, one hundred thousand Protestant Irish were enrolled as volunteers. The Irish Parliament, led by Henry Grattan, now demanded legislative independence, and Britain felt that to resist might cause a civil war. As Britain continued to send Ireland a lord-lieutenant and as he was not responsible to the Irish

Irish Parlia-
ment had
; real

Parliament, the measure of freedom given to Ireland was more in name than in fact.

261. Warren Hastings and India. — Clive left India in 1760, and for the next twelve years the East India Company's affairs were in confusion. The powers



WARREN HASTINGS.

of government were so divided between the East India Company and the native Indian princes, that a strong and just rule was impossible. The servants of the company had every opportunity to gather enormous wealth by oppressing and plundering the natives. Clive himself had taken £200,000 from

Meer Jaffier after the battle of Plassey, and said afterwards that he wondered he had taken so little. In 1772 Warren Hastings went out as governor of Bengal, with orders from the India Company to check abuses and make reforms. The centre of India was governed by Mahratta chiefs, and these chiefs were ready at all times to make war upon the native tribes that were under the protection of the East India Company.

When news of Britain's losses in America reached India, Hastings had to make desperate efforts to retain the India Company's influence. Not only were the French again active against British rule, but Hastings was in sore straits to secure funds. The company expected large dividends to be regularly sent to London. So it is little wonder that, to secure money and thereby retain Britain's hold upon India, Warren Hastings imposed fines upon native princes, and even lent the company's troops for purposes of oppression. Britain's hold upon the country was saved, and doubtless many native rulers protected from a worse tyranny, but that does not shield Hastings from the charge of wrong-doing.

262. Pitt brings India under the Crown. — In 1783, William Pitt, a son of the Earl of Chatham, became prime minister at the age of twenty-five. His enemies made merry over his youth and a popular verse expressed their jeers.

"A sight to make surrounding nations stare,
A kingdom trusted to a schoolboy's care."

Although young in years, Pitt was very able and much more successful in managing men than his father had been. He introduced and passed an India Bill which made important changes. British India was to have a governor-general, appointed by the crown, and the company's directors were to be responsible to the king's ministers.

Pitt's India Bill, 1784



WILLIAM Pitt.

283. Warren Hastings Impeached.—Warren Hastings resigned in the following year and returned to Britain. He was impeached before the Hastings impeached, 1788 Lords for extortions, cruelties, and tortures prac-

tised in India. Edmund Burke and Sheridan, two of the greatest orators of the century, pressed the charges. Burke's closing speech lasted ten days, and so vividly did he picture the Hindoos sinking under British oppression, that ladies in the galleries sobbed and screamed aloud. Some were carried out in fainting fits. The trial dragged on for seven years and

ended in Hastings's acquittal. The important result of the trial was an awakening among the British people of a strong sympathy for the down-trodden natives of India. As the years went on, this interest grew until the meanest native of India was made equal in the eyes of the law to the native-born Briton.

264. Great Inventions and Improvements. — A clumsy sort of engine that consumed great quantities of fuel was in use early in the eighteenth century. James Watt of Glasgow improved these engines so as to make them valuable. When it was discovered that coal could be used to run them the problem of cheap power was solved.

We can now buy a yard of gray cotton for five or six cents. A century and a half ago it cost many times as much because each thread was spun by hand, and every spindle required a spinner. In 1767 Hargreaves invented a spinning-jenny which enabled a single worker to spin more than one hundred threads at once. Spinners were thrown out of work, Hargreaves's machines were broken, and he had to flee for his life. Shortly after the spinning-jenny was invented, Arkwright succeeded in using



EDMUND BURKE.

a water-wheel to supply the power. About the same time Crompton, a poor weaver, invented the spinning-mule which enabled one person to manage one thousand spindles. Crompton was too poor to have his invention patented, and the manufacturers to whom he gave his secret rewarded him with only about £60.

Now that the problem of rapid spinning was solved, it was possible to produce more thread than the ^{Power Loom} weavers could use. In 1785 Cartwright, an English clergyman, invented a loom that was worked by machinery.

Up to this time all porcelain and china dishes, except the very coarsest, had been brought from other ^{Pottery} countries. Now it was discovered that the finest of pottery could be made from the clays of England. Josiah Wedgwood established extensive works which still bear his name. In a few years twenty thousand potters were busy in the single county of Staffordshire.

The old method of smelting ore was by using charcoal, and charcoal can be obtained only from wood.

^{Smelting ore} In many parts of Britain the forests were becoming scarce, and men wondered what would be done when they were gone. Just then it was found that ore could be smelted by using coal, and as northern England, Wales, and southern Scotland had immense supplies of both iron ore and coal, these districts began a new life.

At the beginning of the reign of George III the

roads of Britain, with a few exceptions, were almost impassable. At its close, the kingdom was covered with a network of excellent highways. Part of the credit of building these new roads is due to a Scotsman named Macadam, who invented the roadway we call *macadam*. Canals were also built to lessen the cost of transporting coal and heavy merchandise.

These inventions made a new Britain. The people were no longer dependent upon the food raised in their own country. They could now manufacture cottons, woollens, pottery, and iron and steel goods in quantities much beyond their needs. These goods were exchanged with other nations for food, and such raw materials as cotton, wool, and silk.

265. John Howard. — This worthy man spent his early life as a quiet country gentleman, but, being appointed sheriff of Bedfordshire in 1774, his attention was called to the disgraceful state of the jails. They were filthy beyond description, and alive with rats and vermin. Men, women, and children were huddled together in small, damp, sunless rooms. The jailers were paid by fees, and allowed to practise every cruelty to extort money from their unfortunate prisoners. Even when discharged, a prisoner was often dragged back to jail because he could not pay the fees demanded by the jailer for board and lodging. Howard visited every jail in England. He even shut himself up in the narrow, filthy cells, that he might the better describe the sufferings of their in-

mates. In time his work had its effect. The people were aroused, and the government forced to make improvements. Jailers were paid regular salaries; prisons were inspected and kept clean; wholesome food was provided.



HOWARD RELIEVING A PRISONER.

Howard died in Russian Tartary of a fever contracted while visiting prisons.

266. French Revolution. — In order to understand Britain's part in the wars of Napoleon, we must now turn to France. That country was on the verge of ruin. The wars of Louis XIV and the shameless waste of Louis XV had drained the nation of its brave men, and ground down the peasants in their

efforts to pay the taxes. There was no regular Parliament. Not even the nobles had any share in government, although they enjoyed many privileges. They paid almost nothing towards the taxes, while they had the right to exact ^{privileged classes} many dues and services from the peasants. There was also a small army of clergy exempt from taxation, yet so rich in property that they owned one-third of France. The clergy were almost as selfish and idle as the nobles, and quite as jealous to preserve their special privileges. The peasants made up the larger part of the population. They were the only producers of food and clothing; they paid all except a very small part of the taxes; they were tithed to support a wealthy clergy; they were made to work without wages building smooth roads for the carriages of the nobility; they must have their grapes crushed in the lord's wine-press, and their corn ground at his mill, both being heavily ^{Oppression of the Peasants} tolled; they dare not cut their own crops, when there was any danger of disturbing the eggs of partridges; they must tamely submit to have their grain trodden down, should the nobleman's whim lead him to chase the fox or hunt the wild boar. Under such conditions the peasants were slaves. They could scarcely keep from starving. In the most prosperous years they could earn only the bare necessities of life, while in time of famine they ate the bark of trees or acorns, and were scarcely able to clothe themselves and their children.

Nor were the people without leaders. Men like Voltaire had said much to stir up the people against ^{The writers} the church, while Rousseau had said many eloquent things about the equality of all men and their right to self-government.

The public debt had grown so great that the king's ministers could no longer pay the interest.

^{The debt} Louis XVI hoped to win over the nobles and clergy to some plan by which they would pay a fairer share of taxes. With this end in view, he summoned a National Assembly in 1789. This assembly soon passed beyond the king's control. The representatives of the people gained the upper hand, and in a few months the old order of things was destroyed forever. The Bastille of Paris was hated by the people because hundreds of them had been shut up there to die, often without any trial. The Paris mob now stormed this old fortress, and set the prisoners free. The National Assembly ^{The Revolu-} abolished every trace of the Feudal System, and confiscated the property of the church for the benefit of the nation. The French nobility became alarmed and fled to Austria, there to plot for the overthrow of the National Assembly. When it was rumoured that the king too was about to escape, he was taken prisoner, and in 1793 was executed.

^{Reign of Terror} A little later all Europe was astounded to hear that the queen, Marie Antoinette of Austria, had shared his fate. Then followed the Reign of Terror, an awful period, when blood flowed

like water. For the most part, those who suffered were of noble birth, but none felt safe. If the slightest suspicion of sympathy for the nobility fell upon any man or woman, the terrible guillotine brought a speedy death.

When the Revolution broke out, leading public men in Britain expressed hope for the future of France. But when the Revolutionists took part in wholesale murder, the British turned against them, and clamoured for war. Pitt held out against war as long as he could, but the French Republic openly offered to help other nations to overthrow their rulers, and even declared war against Britain.

Britain and
France at
war, 1793

267. Napoleon Bonaparte. — For twenty years the history of Europe is largely the history of Bonaparte. He was born on the island of Corsica in 1769, and began his military education at the age of ten. In 1784 he entered the Military School at Paris, and won high honours in mathematics. He first showed his genius for command at the siege of Toulon, and after that his power was recognised by the French Directory. In 1796 he married Josephine Beauharnais, a widow, who had a great deal of political influence. Two days later he led a French army into Italy, and subdued its richest provinces. Rare works of art were carried to France, while the French soldiers were allowed to live by plunder.

By this time Britain was at war with the French Republic, and Napoleon set out with an army for

Egypt, intending to extend gradually his rule eastwards until he could strike a blow at British India. He landed in Egypt in 1798, and won a battle, but a few days later the French

Napoleon
in Egypt



NAPOLEON.

fleet was completely destroyed by Nelson in the battle Battle of the Nile. This was a severe blow to Nile, 1798 Napoleon, but he pushed eastwards into Syria. Returning to Egypt, he secretly set out for France, where he found things in disorder. Soon a new constitution was adopted in France, which

made Napoleon first consul for ten years. In a short time he had conquered the Netherlands and united Russia, Sweden, and Denmark in his support. In 1801 Britain bombarded Copenhagen. About the same time the Czar of Russia was murdered. These two events so weakened Napoleon that he agreed to the peace of

Copenhagen
bombarded,
1801



THE BATTLE OF THE NILE.

Amiens. By this treaty Britain obtained Ceylon and Trinidad. Napoleon had captured Malta from the Knights of St. John, but in 1800 it had surrendered to Britain. It was now to go back to its original owners whenever they were in a position to govern it. In Britain the peace was very welcome. The witty Sheridan said, "It is a peace which everybody is glad of, but which nobody is proud of."

Peace of
Amiens, 1802

Napoleon now showed the best side of his nature, and it was in his power to make France a great nation. Every department of government was reorganised. A new set of laws, called the *Code Napoleon*, was adopted. Excellent courts were established. The church, which had been overthrown at the Revolution, was restored. The university was strengthened, manufactures encouraged, and agriculture improved. But Napoleon could not be satisfied with such tame pursuits. He longed for the glory of conquest. There can now be no doubt that he had agreed to peace only that he might have time to build a new navy and strike a crushing blow at Britain. His keen instinct told him that Europe could never be enslaved while Britain was supreme on the ocean.

Early in 1803 war broke out again. Napoleon objected to attacks made on him in English newspapers, and accused Britain of treachery because she had not yet taken her troops out of Malta. At the same time he was annexing European states to France, contrary to the treaty of Amiens. Soon after he had himself proclaimed emperor of France.

Napoleon an emperor He forced the Pope to come to Paris to crown him, but just when the Roman Pontiff was about to place the crown on his head, Napoleon took it from him, and crowned himself. He now resolved to invade England, and for this purpose mustered one hundred and twenty thousand men at Boulogne, and set every dock-yard in France

working to create a navy. "It's only a ditch," he said; "any man can cross it." He even had a medal struck to commemorate the great victory he intended to win. In the meantime British men-of-war were watching every French and Spanish port so closely that Napoleon's great problem was how to get his newly built ships together.

268. Horatio Nelson. — That Napoleon did not set foot on British soil was largely owing to the untiring vigilance of Admiral Nelson. The admiral was now about forty-six years old, and had already given his right arm and right eye for his country. He was born in 1758, at a country vicarage in Norfolk, and at the age of twelve made up his mind to go to sea.

The boy's promotion was rapid, and by 1779 he had won his ship. After three years' service in the West Indies, he served some time in the Mediterranean. In 1797 he took a very brilliant part in the destruction of the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent. In 1798 he totally destroyed the French fleet in the battle of the Nile. For this victory he was given a pension of £2000 and made a peer, with the title of Baron Nelson of the Nile.

Battle of
Cape St. Vin-
cent, 1797

While Nelson was shattering the fleet of Spain Admiral Duncan was keeping watch over the Dutch fleet which was also in league with Napoleon. At one time Duncan's sailors mutinied and left him almost alone to guard the mouth of a river in which

lay the Dutch fleet. Duncan anchored his boat in the shallow river mouth.

“I've taken the depth to a fathom !” he cried,
“And I'll sink with a right good will ;
For I know when we're all of us under the tide
My flag will be fluttering still.”

For three whole days Duncan kept signalling to an imaginary fleet in order to deceive the Dutch. At length his mutinous sailors returned and the Dutch were beaten in the stubborn battle of Camperdown.

In 1801 secret information was given to Britain that the Danish fleet was to be placed under Napoleon's orders, and Sir Hyde Parker, with Lord Nelson, was sent to demand its surrender. The Danes refused to give up their ships and Copenhagen was bombarded.

Bombard-
ment of
Copenhagen,
1801 Nelson was only second in command, and at one time the battle was so fierce that Parker, who was with the remainder of the fleet some miles away, signalled a retreat. Nelson put his glass to his blind eye, and, declaring that he could not see the signal, continued the fight and won a victory.

During the whole of 1804 Nelson was stationed off Toulon in the Mediterranean to watch the French fleet. After waiting more than a year the Toulon French escaped one stormy night, joined some Spanish vessels, and made for the West Indies. Nelson soon obtained news of their route and followed. Now the French and Spanish fleets were sent to the West Indies only to coax Nelson away from Europe.

They quickly put back across the Atlantic, hoping, while Nelson was yet in American seas, to gather all the vessels from French and Spanish ports, and escort Napoleon's great army from Boulogne to England. When Nelson reached the West Indies and found no trace of the enemy, he suspected their plans and quickly made for Europe, arriving just in time to ruin the plans of the French.

In October, 1805, the enemy ventured out from the harbour of Cadiz. In a few hours

they were hopelessly shattered by Nelson off Cape Trafalgar. It was here that he hung out his famous signal, "England expects every man to do his duty." Early in the fight the admiral was struck in the shoulder by a musket ball, and felt that his work was finished. He died in the moment of victory, murmuring, "Thank God, I have done my duty."

Cape
Trafalgar,
1805

269. Wellington. — Nelson's victory at Trafalgar ended Napoleon's dream of crossing the Channel,



LORD NELSON.

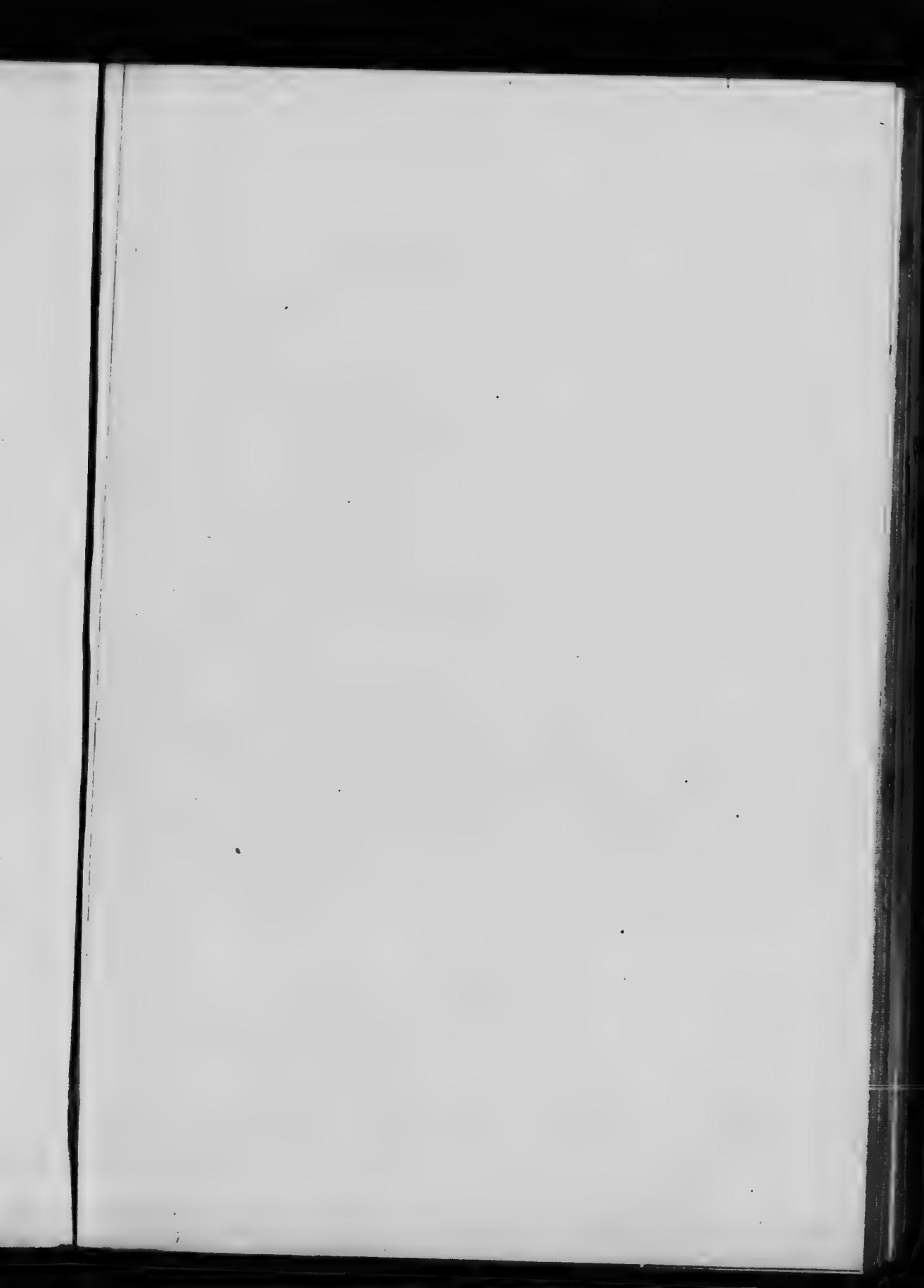
but he still hoped to humble Britain in another way. Pitt was pouring millions of British gold into Europe
Austerlitz,
1805; Jena,
1806; Fried-
land, 1807 to enable the German nations to arm themselves against France. Napoleon struck rapid and heavy blows. The Austrians were crushed at Austerlitz, the Prussians at Jena, and the Russians at Friedland. All Europe, except Britain, was at the mercy of Napoleon. The Dutch



MEDAL STRUCK BY NAPOLEON TO COMMEMORATE HIS INVASION OF ENGLAND.

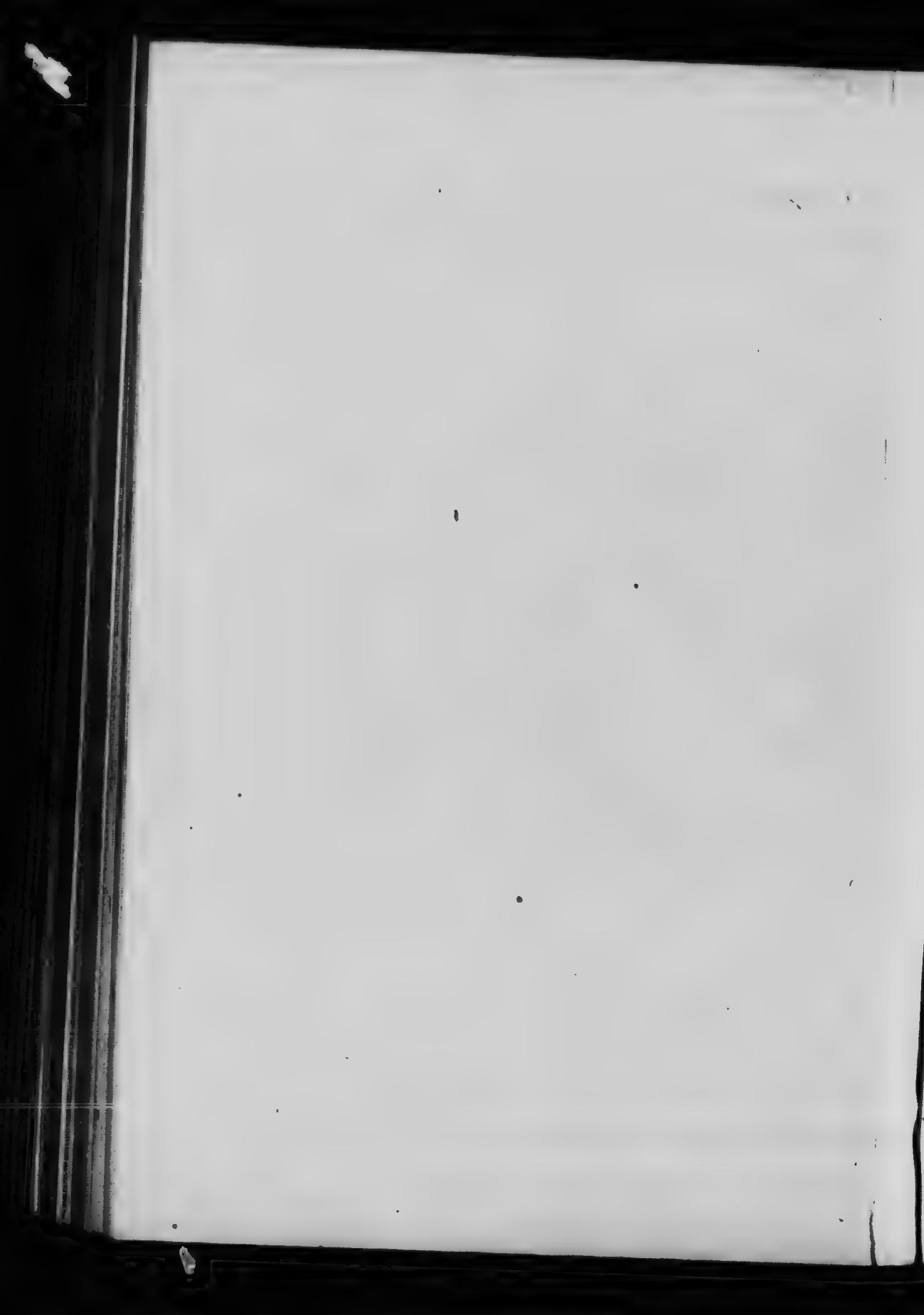
and Spanish crowns were given to his brothers. The nations under him were bound in a league against Britain. That "nation of shopkeepers," as Napoleon called Britain, was to be ruined by having her goods shut out from every port in Europe.

For eight years the struggle went on, and during that time no man did more to check Napoleon than Service in India Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington. Wellesley was born in 1769, at Dungan Castle, Ireland. He was educated at









Eton College and at a military school in France. After some service in the Netherlands, he went to India in 1796. For some years he did good service there in extending and strengthening British control over native tribes.

In 1808 Napoleon dethroned the king of Spain and placed his own brother, Joseph Bonaparte, on the throne. As thousands of French soldiers were in Spanish garrisons, the Spaniards were powerless, and asked aid from Britain. The command in the Spanish Peninsula was given to Wellesley, and for the next four years his skill was severely tested. His force was too weak for pitched battles; he could only wear the enemy out by skilful movements. Again and again he retreated, only to attack the enemy in a new quarter. On one occasion he lured a fine French army nearly to Lisbon, having previously arranged his own line of defence, and stripped the country bare of all food. The French lost twenty-five thousand men by disease and famine.

Peninsular
War,
1808-1813

Little by little Wellesley's strength increased, and he was able to carry several fortresses by storm. Napoleon, who sent his best generals and his finest troops into Spain, lost so heavily that he declared Spain was a "running sore" to his strength. By 1813 Wellesley had driven the French ^{Crosses the Pyrenees} over the Pyrenees and followed them into France. For this service he was made Duke of Wellington and given a grant of £400,000.

In the meantime Napoleon had been busy in other parts of Europe. For a time he had his own way. He even compelled the emperor of Austria to give him his daughter, Maria Louisa, for a wife. In 1812 he led five hundred thousand men into Russia because



THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

he saw that the Russians were no longer willing to give up trade with Britain. His army reached Moscow, but a terrible fire destroyed that city, and Napoleon had to retreat or starve. He did both.

Napoleon in Russia The Russians hung upon his rear to cut off stragglers and make attacks at every favourable moment. Only about thirty thousand miserable men

came back from Russia. Germany, Austria, and Russia now rose and followed Napoleon into France. With Wellington on his left and the allies ^{Napoleon dethroned} behind him, Napoleon was powerless. He abdicated in 1814, and the French monarchy was restored, with Louis XVIII, a brother of Louis XVI, as king. Napoleon was allowed the sovereignty of the little island of Elba.

The reign of Louis XVIII was unpopular, and when Napoleon escaped from Elba in 1815 and returned to France, he found thousands of ^{Napoleon leaves Elba} his old comrades ready to rally round him again. Britain and Germany immediately put armies into the field to crush him. Wellington was sent to Belgium, and was to form a junction with Marshal Blücher, who led the Germans. Napoleon's plan was to separate the two armies and to defeat each in turn. Wellington was at Brussels attending a grand state ball when the boom of cannon told him that Napoleon was advancing. Byron gives us a vivid picture :—

"And there was mounting in hot haste : the steed,
 The mustering squadron and the clattering car,
 Went pouring forward with impetuous speed,
 And swiftly forming in the ranks of war ;
 And the deep thunder peal on peal afar ;
 And near, the beat of the alarming drum
 Roused up the soldier ere the morning star ;
 While thronged the citizens with terror dumb,
 Or whispering with white lips, 'The foe ! They come ! They
 -come !'"

Three days later the British and the French faced each other at Waterloo. Wellington's troops were ^{Waterloo,} partly raw Belgian levies in whom he could ¹⁸¹⁵ place little confidence. Napoleon hoped to crush the British before Blücher came. He therefore made desperate cavalry charges, which were borne largely by the British infantry, formed into squares. Towards night Blücher approached and Napoleon drew up the Imperial Guard, the flower of his troops, for a desperate charge on the British. They were fresh, and came on with every confidence. They had never been beaten. Wellington brought up the British Guard to meet them. Perhaps the world has never seen a more desperate encounter. The British fire was withering, and made the French turn completely around. Just at this critical moment the British advanced and the day was won. When summoned to surrender a Frenchman said, "The Old Guard never surrender; they die." And thousands of the brave fellows went down to death rather than bear the disgrace of defeat.

As Wellington rode over the battlefield and saw the thousands of pale faces upturned in the moonlight, his strong nature gave way and he wept at the sight. It was his last battle. From that day until his death, in 1852, he was willing to make any honourable sacrifice rather than cause a war. Napoleon hurried to Paris and tried to escape to America. Unable to do so, he gave himself up to a British man-of-war. By vote of the allies he was sent to the

island of St. Helena, there to be guarded by Britain. He died in 1821. Several years later his remains were carried to Paris and placed in a magnificent tomb.

The peace treaty which restored the French monarchy left Europe much as it was before the French Revolution. Britain received ^{Peace of Vienna, 1815} Malta, Cape of Good Hope, Dutch Guiana, Tobago, St. Lucien, and Mauritius.

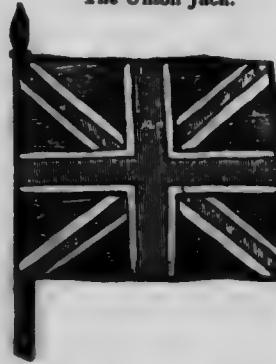
270. War with United States. — During her struggle with Napoleon, Britain had great difficulty in securing seamen. The service was hard, the food coarse, the discipline strict, and the pay small. Desertions were frequent, and Britain claimed the right to search neutral vessels on the high seas for deserters. When Napoleon issued his famous "Berlin Decrees," forbidding European nations to trade with Britain, Great Britain issued decrees declaring that no nation should trade with France.

The "right of search" and "trade decrees" injured the United States, and that nation declared war against Britain in 1812. The chief land engagements were in Canada, where the Americans were defeated in engagement after engagement, ^{Peace of Ghent, 1814} their successes being for the most part small and unimportant. On the seas they met with several successes. The treaty of Ghent restored peace.

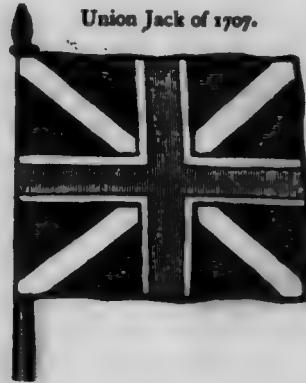
271. Union of Great Britain and Ireland. — The act of 1782, giving Ireland Home Rule, made very little improvement. The Protestants of the established

church were few in number, but had all the power and kept for themselves all the public offices. Roman Catholics were shamefully treated, and they began to lose hope of any improvement. In 1798 the Irish were in rebellion, and frightful cruelties were prac-

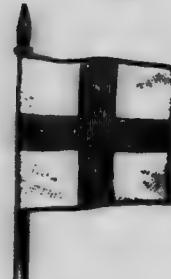
The Union Jack.



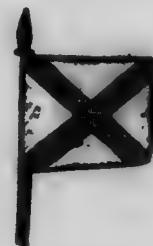
Union Jack of 1707.



Scottish Flag.



English Flag.



Irish Flag.

THE FLAG OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

tised by both Roman Catholics and Protestants. The French were plotting to aid the Irish, and so great was the danger that Pitt proposed to unite Ireland with Britain and put an end to the iniquitous rule of the Irish Parliament. In order to do this he had to bribe the members of the Irish Parliament with

pensions, offices, and gifts of money. The Act of Union was passed in 1801, and by its terms one hundred Commoners and thirty-two peers from Ireland were given seats in the Parliament at Westminster. There was to be absolute free trade between Britain and Ireland. The flag of St. Patrick was to be added to the Union Jack, and the two countries were henceforth to be known as *Great Britain and Ireland*.

The cross of
St. Patrick
added to the
"Union
Jack," Janu-
ary 1, 1801

272. Last Years of George III. — George III was never a man of strong intellect, and as old age approached he showed signs of insanity. In 1811 his reason was so impaired that his eldest son was appointed regent. The people of Britain had a great love for their old king. They no longer remembered his early acts of tyranny. They felt only pity for the lone old *Farmer King* who had gone among them so freely, chatting familiarly with all, and who now walked aimlessly from room to room in his palace.

While the war lasted Britain seemed to be prosperous, although the public debt had grown to £800,000,000, and the taxes were enormous. There was scarcely anything that the people wore, ate, or looked at, that was not taxed. Bread was one shilling, and sometimes two shillings, a loaf. But although food was dear, there was no scarcity of work. Thousands and thousands of men were required each year for the army and navy, and to supply their food and clothing, thousands of others were em-

ployed. Britain also exported largely to the continent, because during the Napoleonic wars few manufacturers cared to establish factories where they might be destroyed. In 1813 Napoleon secretly bought cloth in England to make coats for his soldiers. When the war closed, all was changed. Thousands of soldiers came home to Britain, unable to find employment. Foreign nations required fewer goods from Britain, and the improved machinery was producing more cottons, woollens, and iron than could be sold. Bread was no cheaper than before the war.

When people are hungry and out of work, they naturally grow troublesome. Some blamed the inventors of machinery. This was quite natural, when they could see a boy running a "spinning-mule" with one thousand spindles. Others thought that the poor would never have enough to eat until Luddite riots, 1816 all classes, the workers as well as the property owners, had a voice in electing members to Parliament. In several cases riots occurred, machines were broken, and disorderly meetings were suppressed by the soldiers.

373. Great Writers. — Among the great writers of the early part of this period were Samuel Johnson, who made the first complete dictionary of the English language, and Oliver Goldsmith, who wrote the "Vicar of Wakefield." These men were, during the early part of their lives, very poor, and had to endure much suffering before they became famous.

Perhaps no writer in the English language is more

widely read than Sir Walter Scott. His earliest works were poems, of which "The Lady of the Lake" is the most popular. No other writer had so accurate a knowledge of the Border Country. Scott soon laid aside poetry, and began to write novels. Year after year he laboured and wrote until he was worn out before his time. His Waverley novels are as popular to-day as when they were first issued. His war songs are not excelled in English.

It is said that Scott gave up poetry because he saw that Lord Byron was winning the ear of the public. Byron himself says he woke one morning to find himself famous. His poems, of which "Childe Harold's Pilgrimage" is the best, all breathe the spirit of that liberty which awoke during the last half of the eighteenth century. Byron died in Greece in 1824, of a fever contracted while helping the Greeks to fight for independence.

Robert Burns was the son of a Scottish peasant. He is sometimes known as the *Ploughman Poet*,



ROBERT BURNS.

because some of his finest poems were written while he was living and working on his farm in Ayrshire. His songs, such as "Flow Gently, Sweet Afton" and "Bruce to His Troops," are among the finest in our language. His "Cotter's Saturday Night" gives the most beautiful picture ever written of a humble Scottish home. It is such homes that have made the Scottish people a power in the British Empire.

"The cheerful supper done, wi' serious face,
They, round the ingle, form a circle wide.
The sire turns o'er, wi' patriarchal grace,
The big ha'-Bible, ance his father's pride ;
His bonnet reverently is laid aside,
His lyart haffets wearing thin an' bare ;
Those strains that once did sweet in Zion glide,
He wales a portion with judicious care ;
And 'Let us worship God !' he says, with solemn air."

SECTION 4. GEORGE IV, 1820-1830

274. The First Gentleman of Europe.—As George IV had already had a king's powers for ten years, his accession made little real change in government. This king had long been called by his flatterers—"The First Gentleman of Europe." He spent £10,000 a year for coats. He is said to have invented a shoe-buckle. It is certain that he gambled and drank; that his companions were vicious and shameless; that he preferred the company of buffoons and dancing-masters to that of scholars and statesmen; that he struck his wife and drove her away by neglect and ill-usage, and that he was mean and untruthful.

275. **Roman Catholic Emancipation.**—When the Act of Union was passed in 1801, Pitt wished to make Roman Catholics, who by this time were allowed to vote, eligible for public offices and for



DANIEL O'CONNELL.

members of Parliament. Many Protestants of Ulster also strongly urged such a course, but George III stubbornly refused any concessions. In 1828 the Test and Corporation Acts were repealed in so far as they excluded Protestant Dissenters from public offices. About the same time an organisation, known

as the Catholic Association, was formed in Ireland. Its object was to secure for Roman Catholics the right to sit in Parliament, and its leader was Daniel O'Connell, an eloquent Irish barrister.

In 1828 O'Connell was elected to represent County Clare in the Parliament at London. Of course he could not take his seat in Parliament without subscribing to the usual oath against *transubstantiation*. The Duke of Wellington, who was now prime minister, feared that when O'Connell was refused his seat the Irish would rise in rebellion. Wellington did not believe that Roman Catholics should be allowed to sit in Parliament, but he had a horror of war, and he had the advice of Sir Robert Peel, secretary for Ireland, Roman Catholic Emancipation, 1829 who knew all about Irish affairs. The Catholic Emancipation Bill became law in 1829, and since that time Ireland has sent a large proportion of Roman Catholic members to the Imperial Parliament.

276. Sir Samuel Romilly. — When George III became king the statutes laid down more than two hundred offences for which the penalty was hanging. To cut a cherry tree, break a dyke, be seen with gypsies, deface Westminster bridge, steal more than five shillings, or hunt in the king's forests — any one of these offences was sufficient to send a man to the gallows. Because the penalties were so severe, juries often refused to make convictions, and offenders went unpunished. Sir Samuel Romilly was a descendant of a French Huguenot family that had been driven

from France by the persecutions of Louis XIV. Romilly's father had made a fortune as a goldsmith and had educated his son for the law. As was usual, many of the London lawyers followed the judges on their circuits about England, securing law business

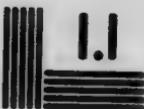


SIR SAMUEL ROMILLY.

in the different towns where the courts were held. In this way Romilly came to know thoroughly the cruelty of the laws, and saw, too, how they might be improved. Romilly secured a seat in Parliament and gave his whole attention to law reform. Several times the Commons passed bills, for reform of the criminal laws, that were thrown out by the Lords.



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In 1823, five years after Romilly's death, Sir Robert Peel succeeded in having the death penalty removed from more than one hundred offences.

SECTION 5. WILLIAM IV, 1830-1837

277. The Sailor King. — The death of Princess Charlotte, only daughter of George IV, left the crown to William, second son of George III. The new king was a jolly, easy-going man, who had spent much of his early life upon the sea. Unlike George IV, he did not wear pink silk coats with lace cuffs. He had many of the vices of his age, but as he was sincere and patriotic the people received him cordially. He was childless and already long past middle age, and it was known that his niece, Victoria, now a maid of eleven, would succeed him.

278. Reform Bill of 1832. — Since the time of Elizabeth very few changes had been made in the method of electing members to the Commons. New towns, such as Leeds, Birmingham, and Manchester, sent no representatives to Parliament. On the other hand, there were districts, once populous but now almost deserted, that still sent members. These ^{Rotten boroughs} decayed or "rotten boroughs," as they were called, were controlled each by some wealthy landowner, and he could have whom he chose elected. During the time of Walpole, and even down to the nineteenth century, boroughs were openly sold sometimes for five or six thousand pounds.

Even Wilberforce bought a seat rather than receive one from some friend who might expect to control his vote. The right to vote was confined to land-owners. A tenant might pay a yearly rental of £1000, and own scores of cattle and hundreds of sheep, and yet have no vote. A lawyer or doctor might be the most intelligent man in his town, but if he lived in a rented house, he could not vote.

Tenants not allowed to vote

Reform had been talked of for half a century. Pitt had plans to reform the Commons when he first took office. The Napoleonic wars had given British statesmen other things to think of, and besides had created in the minds of the upper classes a fear that the people, if given political power, might use it to work a revolution. The House of Lords was bitterly opposed to any changes, and, strange as it may appear, the spiritual peers, bishops and archbishops, were the most averse to reform.

House of Lords opposed to all changes

In 1831 the government of Earl Grey submitted a Reform Bill. Lord John Russell introduced it in the Commons, but the Tories offered such opposition that the Parliament was dissolved. The new elections gave Earl Grey a large majority, and the bill passed the Commons, only to be thrown out by the Lords. Again, in 1832, the Commons passed the bill, and again the Lords threw it out. Excitement ran high. Riots occurred, and in some places lives were lost. Thousands pledged themselves to pay no

taxes until the bill became law. Earl Grey resigned, but when the Tories were unable to form a government, he took office again, upon the king giving a pledge that, if necessary, he would create enough new peers to carry the bill in the Lords. The Duke of Wellington now persuaded several peers to stay away when the bill came up, and in this way it passed the Lords.

Fifty-six boroughs lost the right to send any members. Thirty others were to send one member each instead of two. The right to send members was given for the first time to many populous towns, and additional members were given to several counties. The *franchise*, or right to vote, was extended to tenants in counties paying £50 a year, and to tenants in towns paying £10 a year.

Before the Reform Bill, the political power rested wholly with the nobility, clergy, and landowners; after the Reform Bill, the great middle class, comprising tenant-farmers, professional men, skilled artisans, and tradesmen, was given a share in the government of the country.

279. Wilberforce and the Slave Trade.—The first people to concern themselves about the slaves were the Quakers. They protested against the traffic, and would allow no member of their society to have any part in it. Hundreds of negroes were carried every year from Africa to America and the West Indies. Here they were employed on the plantations, culti-

vating coffee, sugar, rice, and cotton. The slave-dealers loaded their ships so closely that it was quite common for one-third of the human cargo to die while crossing the ocean. They were huddled together like sheep. A space six by three and a half



WILLIAM WILBERFORCE.

by two feet for each negro was considered enough for a journey lasting sometimes more than three months. If a negro became sick, or if water was scarce, he was thrown overboard.

William Wilberforce secured a seat in Parliament, and devoted his life and fortune to the cause of the negro. He rightly believed that if he could make

known to the people the cruelties practised upon the negro, Parliament would be forced to amend the laws. Upon two occasions Wilberforce, with the aid of Pitt, Fox, and Burke, carried bills through the Commons to stop the negro traffic, but they were defeated by the Lords. In 1807 an act was passed making the slave traffic illegal in British dominions, but this did not set free those already slaves. In 1833 Parliament passed a bill setting free all slaves. Twenty million pounds, or £22 10s. for each slave was granted as compensation to the planters.

280. Poor-laws. — The poor-law of Elizabeth gave no aid to able-bodied paupers unless they went to the workhouse. When the war of the American Revolution began and wheat went up in price, the poorest labourers were the first to suffer. Laws were then passed giving relief to the poor in their own homes. As wages fell, more relief was given. The employers naturally lowered wages, knowing that the labourers would get relief from the parish. The labourers soon lost all independence. They came to think it was no disgrace to get aid from the poor rates. In some counties three-quarters of the country people were rated as paupers. The taxes for the poor rate rose in 1832 to £7,000,000. Earl Grey brought in a bill in 1834 which confined aid to the aged and infirm. All others claiming charity were sent to the parish workhouse. The result was an enormous decrease in the number of paupers and a very large decrease in the taxation.

281. Sir Humphry Davy. — Humphry Davy first won fame as a chemist. An explosion, killing one hundred coal miners, occurred in northern England. Davy was asked to devise some plan to lessen the number of such accidents. Fire-damp is a gas given off from the coal-beds. When a miner's candle comes near a mixture of fire-damp and air, an explosion follows. As the miner cannot tell when the fire-damp is present, he is in constant danger. Davy found that when the miner's candle was surrounded by a wire netting, it would not light the gases. This simple discovery, made in 1815, has saved thousands of lives.

SECTION 6. VICTORIA, 1837-1901

282. Early Life and Accession. — When she was yet a little girl it was almost certain that Victoria, daughter of the third son of George III, would, if she lived, become queen of Great Britain. Her father died when she was a few months old, and her mother wisely determined that the daughter should see very little of court life. Her childhood was therefore spent almost in seclusion. So long as was possible her prospect of a crown was kept secret from her. The death of William IV found Victoria a girl of eighteen, highly accomplished for one so young, and with fixed habits of punctuality, order, and economy.

There were many troublesome questions pressing

for settlement. Abroad there was a quarrel between the Chinese and the British merchants over the opium trade; there was trouble in Jamaica over the slaves recently set free; in Canada there was a rebellion led by William Lyon Mackenzie and Louis Joseph Papineau. At home the whole land was in an uproar over the Chartists.



QUEEN VICTORIA.

283. The Prince Consort. — Three years after her accession Queen Victoria married her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg. The union proved a very happy one. The Prince Consort was a devoted husband, and ever ready to aid in any scheme for the improvement of his adopted country. His sudden death in 1861 was the first great sorrow that came to the queen. The memory of her

Queen
Victoria's
marriage,
1840

loss was so keen that thirty years afterwards she sat in a humble cottage in Scotland and wept in sympathy with a poor woman whose husband had just been taken from her. It was such manifestations of tenderness, together with her purity of life and her devotion to her people, that made Victoria the best beloved and most honoured sovereign the world has ever seen.

284. Penny Postage. — At Victoria's accession it cost one shilling to send a letter from London to Edinburgh. The postage was paid by the one who received the letter, and this caused much inconvenience. Few people wrote letters, and news spread so slowly that the death of a friend in a neighbouring county might not become known for months.

Rowland Hill tried to persuade the government that if the postage were lessened more letters would be sent and a greater revenue obtained.

He was laughed at. The postmaster-general said that with cheap postage there would be so many letters the post-offices would burst. Hill persevered, however, and in 1840 penny postage was given a trial. A year later postage stamps were invented. The number of letters increased so rapidly that the government soon made a handsome profit from post-offices.

Penny
postage,
1840

285. The Chartist. — The lower classes were indignant that the Reform Bill of 1832 had given them no share in the government. Food was dear and wages low. Thousands of the labouring men, who were often hungry, thought that if they had votes they would

be more prosperous. They put forward six demands, which were laid down in a petition to Parliament. This petition was spoken of as "a charter," and therefore the agitators were called *Chartists*. They asked : (1) that every man have a vote ; (2) that voting be by ballot ; (3) that members of Parliament be paid ; (4) that the whole kingdom be divided into electoral districts with equal population ; (5) that members of Parliament be not required to own property ; (6) that Parliaments be elected annually instead of every seven years.

Six demands
of the
Chartists

Had every one of these demands been granted, the condition of the poor would not have been improved. They were hungry and therefore discontented. One man, in speaking for the charter in 1838, said, "It means that every workingman in the land has a right to a good coat, a good hat, a good dinner, no more work than will keep him in health, and as much wages as will keep him in plenty." For ten years the Chartist kept up an agitation, causing serious riots in some places. As wages increased and food became cheaper, their discontent died away.

286. Opium War. — The Chinese government discouraged all commerce with foreigners, but could not prevent her people from buying opium from the British merchants. The British traders, being backed up by the East India Company, who supplied them with the drug, refused to give up the trade. They even dragged Britain into a discreditable war to pro-

tect them and their property. The Chinese were badly beaten and obliged to make terms. Hong-Kong was ceded to Great Britain, while Canton, Amoy, Ningpo, Shanghai, and Foochow became open ports for British trade.

Hong-Kong
ceded to
Great Britain,
1842

287. The Corn Laws.—The House of Commons was composed of landowners. They naturally wished to keep up rents. If rents were to remain high, it was necessary to keep up the price of grain. This could be done only by placing heavy duties upon foreign grain, or *corn*, as they say in Britain. The towns of England and Scotland had already become the greatest manufacturing centres in the world. The cotton



SIR ROBERT PEEL.

mill, the woollen mills, the silk mills, the smelting furnaces, the cutlery works, the potteries, and the coal mines gave work to millions. These millions received very low wages, and to them the high price of bread meant empty cupboards and hungry children. For fifty years there had been a few men

in Britain who doubted whether it were wise to tax the food of a nation that could not produce enough to feed her own people. Sir Robert Peel had already removed the duties on hundreds of articles, and the revenue was steadily growing. But all attempts to remove the duties from grains had hitherto met with defeat. The landowners were sure that such a step would ruin them.

288. Cobden and Bright. — Richard Cobden did more than any other man to convince the people of Britain that the Corn Laws were unjust. Cobden was a calico printer of Manchester, and employed thousands of workers. He saw every day the sufferings of the poor, and believed that they would be comfortable if they could have cheap bread. A union was formed called the Anti-Corn Law League.

Anti-Corn
Law League,
1838 members of this league pledged themselves to work for the abolition of all duties on corn. Branch leagues were formed, funds subscribed, and pamphlets printed. No man gave Cobden such hearty support as John Bright, a Quaker, who owned great carpet works in Lancashire. These two men held meetings in every great centre in England and Scotland. Both were members of Parliament, both were employers of labour, both were great orators. Little by little, fair-minded men came to see how selfish it was to starve the working millions in order that a few thousand landowners and farmers might become rich. It became only a question of time when the Corn Laws would be repealed.

389. Irish Famine. — The death-blow to the Corn Laws came from a famine in Ireland. The Irish peasants had but four or five acres each. They had large families and small incomes. Their chief food was the potato. Thousands in Ire-



JOHN BRIGHT.

land grew to be men and women scarcely knowing the taste of meat. Even bread was a luxury. A long season of rain and cloud caused a blight to attack the potatoes. The staple food of the people was gone, and they crowded into the towns where many died of starvation. England and America

sent shiploads of food, but in many cases it came too late.

To give an immediate supply of cheap bread, Sir Robert Peel decided to abolish the duties on corn. The Irish famine and the emigration which followed reduced the population of the Emerald Isle from eight to less than six millions.

Corn Laws
abolished,
1846

290. The Eastern Question. — Centuries ago, in 1453, the Mahometan Turks captured Constantinople from the Greek Christians. Although the nations of Europe often talked about driving the infidels beyond the Bosphorus, nothing was done. Indeed, the power and territory of the Turk in Europe were gradually extended. Russia was quietly waiting for an opportunity to extend her dominions towards the Mediterranean. In 1853 the Czar proposed to the British ambassador in St. Petersburg that the Turk should be driven into Asia, and his dominions shared between Russia and Britain. "We have on our hands," he said, "a very sick man; it will be a great misfortune if one of these days he should slip away from us before the necessary arrangements have been made." Russia, of course, wanted the large share of the "sick" man's estate. Britain feared to have Russian territory extended in any direction that would bring that power nearer to India or give it more influence in the Mediterranean.

291. Crimean War. — Russia went quietly on with her plans. The Czar claimed to be the protector of

the Greek Christians living in Turkey, and the refusal of the Sultan to recognise this claim was an excuse for war. In order to check Russia, both France and England joined Turkey. The allies poured troops into the Crimea, defeated the Russians at the Battle of the Alma, and then laid siege to Sebastopol. The British soldiers were brave, but badly officered. Since Waterloo they had taken part in no great war. The Duke of Wellington was dead, and there was no man who knew how to feed and clothe an army in the field. Soldiers were half naked and starving in the Crimea, while a few miles away were shiploads of food and warm clothing. Officials at home blundered; one shipment of shoes was found to be all for the left foot. Hospital arrangements were so poor that nine men died of disease or neglect for one shot in battle.

When news of mismanagement reached Britain the people demanded a change of ministry. Lord Palmerston took the helm, and in a short time affairs were much improved. Sebastopol fell, and a peace was made. Britain had lost twenty thousand men, and spent £77,000,000. In return she had gained almost nothing, except to check Russia for the time.

Palmerston
Prime Minister, 1855

292. Florence Nightingale. — Chief among the reforms gained from the Crimean war was the improvement in nursing, and the credit for this change was due largely to Florence Nightingale. She was born in the beautiful city of Florence, and named after her

birthplace. Her father had a country home in Derbyshire, and here the daughter learned to love flowers and animals. At a very early age she began to study nursing. In those days neat and well-trained nurses were not the rule. Indeed, in England the nurse was



FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE.

less respected than a domestic servant. The honour and respect in which nurses are now held in Great Britain and America is partly due to Miss Nightingale's efforts. She visited the best hospitals in Germany, France, and other countries, and learned how very closely good nursing is connected with food, sunshine, and

pure air. The War Secretary asked Miss Nightingale to go to the Black Sea and take full charge of the hospitals. She set out immediately with a band of thirty-four nurses. These devoted women soon gave the hospitals an air of order and cleanliness, while the poor soldiers were tenderly nursed back to life, or their eyes softly closed in death.

Longfellow has beautifully pictured Miss Nightingale's work of mercy :—

" Lo ! in that house of misery
A lady with a lamp I see
Pass through the glimmering gloom
And flit from room to room.

" And slow, as in a dream of bliss,
The speechless sufferer turns ~~kiss~~
Her shadow as it falls
Upon the darkening walls."

293. Benjamin Disraeli and Conservative Rule. — Disraeli was three times chancellor of the exchequer and twice prime minister of Britain. The name *Disraeli* means *of Israel*, and shows his Jewish origin. Indeed, he was born a Jew, and it was not until Benjamin was thirteen years of age that his father, Isaac, accepted Christianity for himself and family. Even then the son could not attend a good English school without being taunted about his Jewish birth. His father's wealth provided him with the best of tutors, and his education was very carefully conducted. At the age of twenty-two he published a novel which showed much wit and originality.

He tried to enter Parliament in 1832 as a Radical, that is, one who is ready to make sweeping changes. He did not find a seat until 1837, in the first Parliament of Victoria, and by that time he had become a Conservative. When he rose to make his first speech in the Commons the uproar was so great that he had

to sit down. "I will sit down now," he said; "but the time will come when you will hear me." His green coat, white waistcoat, large-checked trousers, and watch-chains, together with his wild gestures, made him seem ridiculous. But his knowledge upon



THE EARL OF BEACONSFIELD.

in Parliament several important events occurred.

Up to this time Jews had never been allowed to sit in Parliament. As early as 1847 Baron Rothschild had

Jews allowed
to sit in Par-
liament, 1858

been elected for London, but not allowed to take his seat. While Disraeli was leader of the Commons in Lord Derby's government a bill passed both Houses allowing Jews to sit in Parliament. Baron Rothschild was the first Jew to take his seat.

Disraeli passed what is known as the Second Reform Bill, which gave the franchise to a large

every subject was wonderful, and his skill in debate won him respect. His power was recognised, and the Conservatives, unwillingly at first, had to accept him as one of their leaders. He was prime minister for a short term during 1867-68, and again from 1874-80. During his career

number of workingmen in towns and cities. The bill was really forced upon him by the Liberals, of whom Mr. Gladstone was chief.

Second Re-form Bill,
1867

The Suez Canal was built by a French engineer, De Lesseps. The stock was held by Frenchmen and by the Khedive of Egypt, but the commerce going through the canal was three-quarters British. The Khedive needed money, and Disraeli promptly bought his stock for the British government, thus securing for Britain an interest in the canal.

Two years later Disraeli was made Earl of Beaconsfield, and in the same year he planned to extend and strengthen British control over India by having Queen Victoria adopt the title of "Empress of India."

Lord Beaconsfield will always be remembered as a great Imperialist. Mr. Gladstone, John Bright, and other Liberals were strongly for peace, and interested themselves especially in reforms at home. They had no desire to extend Britain's foreign possessions. Disraeli disliked the details of domestic reform, but was anxious to see Britain play a brilliant part among the nations, and have her greatness recognised in every continent. He was a thorough Englishman, a staunch churchman, a brilliant writer, an eloquent speaker, a warm friend, and above all a patriot.

294. William Ewart Gladstone and Liberalism. — Disraeli's great rival in Parliament was Mr. Gladstone, the fourth son of Sir John Gladstone, a

wealthy Scottish merchant of Liverpool. After the usual course at Eton, Mr. Gladstone entered Oxford where, besides distinguishing himself in classics and mathematics, he won great fame in the Debating Society. He entered Parliament in 1832



WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE.

came to the front as an advanced Liberal.

It is generally admitted that he was the greatest parliamentary debater of the nineteenth century, and ^{Mr. Gladstone} _{a Commoner} an orator of the first rank. He was several times chancellor of the exchequer, and four times prime minister. Although often pressed to accept a title, he chose to remain a Commoner. Perhaps

as a Conservative, and bitterly opposed every movement for reform. To him the Reform Bill, Roman Catholic Emancipation, and the Abolition of Slavery were dangerous measures. He was a Peelite Conservative until 1846, when he went with his leader for free trade. After that time he rapidly

he felt that as prime minister a seat in the Commons gave him greater power.

As chancellor of the exchequer Mr. Gladstone continued the work begun by Peel of reducing import duties. In six years he cut down the number of articles paying duty from 419 to 48. Such articles as sugar, paper, and tallow were admitted free, the duty being retained on such luxuries as wines, spirits, beer, tobacco, tea, coffee, and cocoa.

Ireland had a Protestant state church to which every foot of land must pay its tax. This was very unjust to the Roman Catholics, who were thereby forced to support two churches. Gladstone carried a bill to disestablish the state church in Ireland, and make compensation to the clergy.

Irish state
church dises-
tablished,
1869

The Irish tenants complained that when a lease ran out, and for any reason the farm passed to a new tenant, the old tenant got nothing for the improvements he had put on the farm. Mr. Gladstone's government passed a bill giving the tenant a legal claim for compensation.

Irish Ten-
ants' Com-
pensation
Act, 1870

England had no public schools as we have in America. There were a few excellent schools for the rich, many church schools, and a few charity schools for the poor. The Gladstone government passed an Education Act which established board schools supported by a property tax.

English Edu-
cation Act,
1870

The Chartists had demanded vote by ballot in
Ballot Act, 1872 1837. Gladstone's Ballot Act gave this
reform in 1872.

It was an old custom in the British army that a junior officer might pay his superior a sum of money to induce him to retire. An officer who was poor must wait for promotion until his senior died. This system of purchase was ended by the queen's warrant, on Gladstone's advice.
Army purchase abolished, 1872

Disraeli's Reform Bill of 1867 gave votes to artisans in towns. Gladstone extended the franchise to agricultural labourers, thus giving political power to every class in the kingdom.
Third Reform Bill, 1884

Ever since the Act of Union, in 1801, Ireland had been uneasy. The people of a great part of Ireland were bent on having a Parliament at Dublin. The reform bills had given the peasant class so much power that more than three-quarters of the Irish members were Home Rulers, ready to give their support to any party that would promise a Parliament for Ireland. Mr. Gladstone was at first bitterly opposed to such a measure, but he finally became convinced that it was both just and necessary. Many of his own party doubted the wisdom of any step that would weaken the bond of union between Ireland and Great Britain. A considerable number of Liberals who called themselves Liberal-Unionists opposed the bill. By tremendous efforts Mr. Gladstone carried the Home Rule Bill through the Commons, but it was thrown out by the Lords.
Home Rule Bill passed Commons, 1893

The next year Mr. Gladstone retired, owing to advanced age. He died in 1898 at the ripe age of eighty-eight. As a statesman, his work was wholly intended to raise the masses and break down class privileges. For this reason he earned the cordial dislike of three-quarters of the British nobility and landed gentry. No British statesman stands higher in the estimation of foreign nations. He never hesitated when he believed himself in the right. His efforts to make reforms at home, and his desire to keep peace abroad, together with his simple Christian life, earned him the title of "Britain's Grand Old Man."

295. Golden Jubilee. — The closing years of the queen's reign were marked on the whole by happiness and prosperity. The fiftieth anniversary of her accession was celebrated by a glorious military parade, in which troops from every colony took part. The whole royal family went to a thanksgiving service in Westminster Abbey. The greatness and unity of the Empire was the subject of admiration and wonder. The Imperial idea began to grow.

Golden
Jubilee,
1887.

296. Diamond Jubilee. — By 1897 the queen had reigned longer than any of her ancestors. Again a great jubilee was held, quite eclipsing in magnificence that of 1887. The queen went in state to St. Paul's. The military parade included the premiers of every British colony, accompanied by colonial troops.

Diamond
Jubilee,
1897

Indian rajahs, with native troops, gave evidence of Britain's power in the East. British subjects from every part of the Empire joined to honour their queen and pay tribute to the justice of British rule. Many costly presents were sent to the queen by her own subjects and by foreign rulers.

297. Death of Queen Victoria.—In January, 1901, the queen, who had ruled for almost sixty-four years,

Death of
Victoria,
1901 and seen two generations of her people pass away, died at Osborne House, on the

Isle of Wight. No doubt the terrible strain of the Boer war had told upon her health. Never has the death of any ruler called forth such sincere and widespread mourning. The whole civilised world was touched with grief. The details of the funeral pageant, which was one of the most solemn and imposing ever witnessed, had been arranged, long before, by the queen herself.

“ Her court was pure ; her life serene ;
God gave her peace ; her land reposéd ;
A thousand claims to reverence closed
In her as Mother, Wife, and Queen.”

298. Victorian Writers.—No other literary age except that of Elizabeth approaches the Victorian. It would take a page merely to give the names of eminent writers. Wordsworth was the greatest poet during the early years of Victoria's reign. His short poems on nature are not surpassed by any others in our language. Tennyson was the typical poet of the age. In 1850 he was made poet-laureate ; that is, was

recognised as the national poet of Britain and given a salary by the government. As laureate, Tennyson wrote poems on great national events. One of the best produced upon such an occasion is his welcome to Alexandra, written in 1863, when King Edward



ALFRED, LORD TENNYSON.

VII, then Prince of Wales, married the Danish princess. Tennyson's greatest poems are "In Memoriam" and "Idylls of the King." Robert Browning ranks very high as a poet, but is not read by so many people as is Tennyson. The greatest historians were Hallam, Grote, Carlyle, Gardiner, Green, and Macau-

lay. The most popular novelist was Charles Dickens, who did so much to arouse an interest in old abuses,



CHARLES DICKENS.

especially those that concerned neglected children. The most finished novels of the period were written by Thackeray and by George Eliot (Mary Ann Evans). Robert Louis Stevenson produced some picturesque tales of adventure written in faultless English.

SECTION 7. GREATER BRITAIN

299. The Empire is a Unit. — Britain has not acquired much additional territory during the nineteenth century; but her Empire has expanded in wealth and population beyond the wildest dreams of those who laid its foundations. The colonies, once regarded as convenient places to send troublesome subjects and British goods, are now looked upon as the strong right arm of the mother country. Canadians, Australians, and Africanders who go to London are warmly welcomed, and made to feel that

their part is not an inferior one in the Empire's destiny.

300. Canada. — When Britain obtained Canada in 1763, the French king exclaimed, "Only a few thousand acres of snow." The beginning of the nineteenth century found the colony yet undeveloped, but with twenty-five thousand United Empire Loyalists along the Great Lakes, besides about one hundred and thirty thousand hardy French along the St. Lawrence. By 1867 the British element had increased to nearly three millions, and spread from the Atlantic to the Pacific. The British North America Act united four colonies into the British North America Act,
1867 Dominion of Canada. Very soon the Dominion was extended to the Pacific Ocean, and Hudson Bay Territory added to it, making seven provinces in all. Canada is now recognised as Britain's granary, and her five and a half million people are happier, more prosperous, and more intelligent than any other five and a half millions in the world. The immigration from Great Britain and the United States during the years 1900-1903 gives promise that the population will reach ten millions before 1920.

301. Australia. — The island was discovered and claimed for Britain in 1768 by Captain Cook. About 1788 Britain began to send convicts to South Australia. In time they became free, their children were free, and other free settlers arrived. It was discovered that the climate was well suited for sheep-farming,

and in a short time thousands of flocks were grazing on the hillsides. By 1853 the settlers were able to persuade the home government that the convicts were injuring the colony, and no more were sent. In 1851 gold was discovered in enormous quantities, and people streamed into the colony from every quarter of the globe. Cattle-ranching and sheep-raising increased, and new settlements were formed.

In 1901 the Australian colonies were federated on the plan of the Dominion of Canada. The Australian

Australian Federation, 1901 Commonwealth now has between three and four millions of people, all of whom are strongly attached to the mother country. The one serious drawback to the country is the severe droughts which cause great loss to the ranches.

302. New Zealand. — This colony lies east from Australia about twelve hundred miles. It was first settled by the British in 1839, and now has a white population of over five hundred thousand. It has a less torrid climate than Australia, and is better watered. Sheep-farming, cattle-ranching, and dairying are the chief industries.

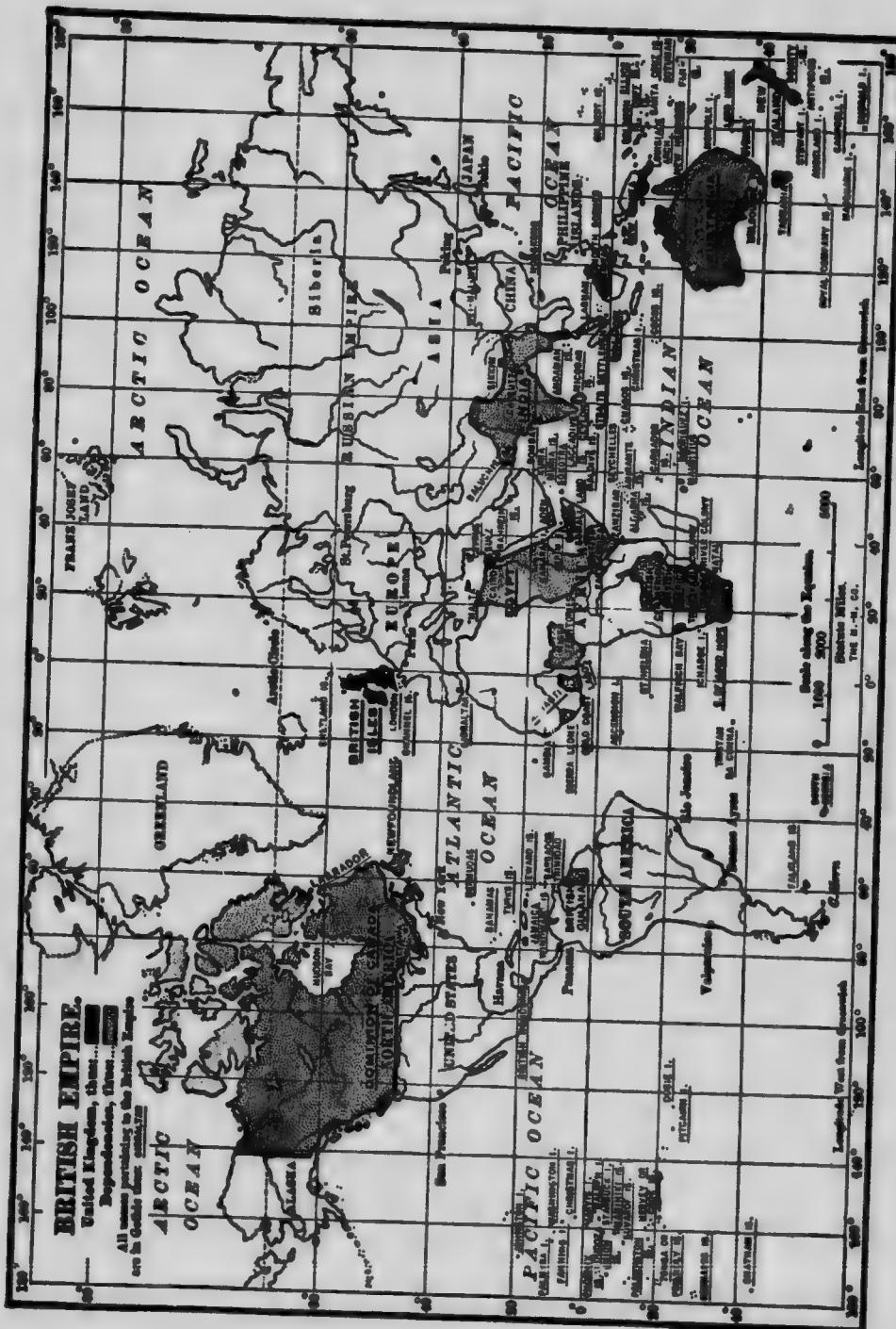
For many years the settlers had to wage wars against the native Maoris, a fierce but intelligent people. A good feeling now prevails, and the Maoris have been given four seats in the legislature.

303. India. — It would take too much space to describe fully how the East India Company extended its power until it controlled all India. Gradually the

BRITISH EMPIRE.

Editorial

All money remitting to the British Empire
are to Goodwill sent over



native chiefs became subject princes of Britain, and received annual money payments.

Britain had a war with Afghanistan, and brought upon herself a terrible blow through the mistakes ^{Afghan War,} of her officers. Sixteen thousand men, ¹⁸⁴² women, and children were murdered : the Pass of Cabul, only one man escaping to tell the horrible story.

Britain made soldiers of the native Indians, or Sepoys. In many cases only the officers of a regiment were British. On the whole, the Sepoys made good soldiers, but they were religious fanatics, either Hindoo or Mahometan. For some time before 1857 the Sepoys were restless ; they were displeased because their regiments had been sent over the sea to fight in Burmah and China. The British officers were not always men of tact and experience. A

Causes of Indian Mutiny

rumour spread among the Sepoys that Christianity was to be forced upon them. They were first to be defiled by using cartridges greased with the lard of pigs or the tallow of cows. The pig is an abomination to the Mahometan, while the cow is sacred to the Hindoo. After losing caste by this sacrilege, they were to be invited to become Christians. This absurd story spread among them, and incited them to rebellion. A terrible massacre took place at Cawnpore where one thousand British were butchered by Nana Sahib. At Lucknow, the British garrison was besieged for months, but held

Massacre of Cawnpore, 1857

out bravely under Sir Henry Lawrence, who died saying, "Never surrender, but die every man at his post." After eighty-seven days the garrison was relieved by Havelock.

"All on a sudden the garrison utter a jubilant shout,
Havelock's glorious Highlanders answer with conquering cheers,
Sick from the hospital echo them, women and children come out,
Blessing the wholesome white faces of Havelock's good fusileers,
Kissing the war-hardened hand of the Highlander wet with their
tears."

When peace was restored the government of India was taken entirely from the control of the East India Company, and placed under the crown. Since that time Britain has spared no effort to make India prosperous, and she has met with much success.

Droughts are frequent in some provinces, and a drought always means a famine. Improved methods of farming and irrigation are doing much for India; but the food and clothing for two hundred and fifty million people is a large problem. There are millions of men and women in India who have very seldom in their lives enjoyed a satisfying meal of substantial food.

304. South Africa. — Britain acquired the Dutch settlement at the Cape of Good Hope in 1806. The Dutch farmers, or Boers, were always ^{First Boer} _{"trek," 1836} ^{res-} _{tive} under British control, and they decided to go north and form a settlement wholly Dutch. Britain followed, and annexed the new territory.

Once more the Dutch moved north, but were unable
Second to defend themselves against the Kaffirs,
Boer "trek" and again Britain had to interfere.

In 1880 the Boers defeated the British at Majuba Hill, and a peace, negotiated by Mr. Gladstone's government, was signed giving the Transvaal colony almost absolute freedom. The discovery of gold and diamonds in Dutch territory brought in thousands of foreigners, mostly British. These non-Dutch, or *Uitlanders*, were made to pay excessive taxes, and yet were given no share in government. Britain protested. The Dutch resented any interference, and were pressing Britain to renounce all claim to sovereignty over the Transvaal.

The Dutch believed that the British might be wholly driven out of Africa, and in 1899 the Transvaal and Orange Free State joined in an attack on Natal.
Boers invade Natal, 1899 A bitter war, lasting more than two years, followed. Britain sent two hundred and fifty thousand men to Africa under men like General Lord Roberts and General Lord Kitchener. Canada, Australia, and New Zealand sent volunteer forces which did good service. The result was that the Transvaal and Orange Free State became a part of the British Empire. Britain is trying to repair the waste caused during the war by loaning money to the Boers that they may restock their farms and begin life anew.

The South Africa Company, under Cecil Rhodes, had, previous to the war, annexed a great territory

farther north, so that now Britain's control is almost continuous from the Cape to Central Africa.

305. Egypt. — Britain, together with France, exercised some control in Egypt from the time that Disraeli bought the Suez Canal shares. In 1879 the Khedive Ismail was so deeply in debt that he was compelled to abdicate. His son, Tewfik, was placed on the throne and given two prime ministers,—one French, the other British.

Arabi Pasha, an Egyptian colonel, rose against Tewfik's government, drove the foreign ministers out of the country, and massacred many foreigners. His motto was "Egypt for the Egyptians." France refused to act, so Britain bombarded Alexandria and routed Arabi Pasha at Tel-el-Kebir.

Meanwhile in the Soudan a fanatic Mahometan calling himself the Mahdi, or prophet, rose in rebellion against the Egyptian government. Ten thousand Egyptians under Colonel Hicks went forth to meet the rebels and were never heard of again. Later, Gordon, who had won great fame in China, went to Khartoum to save the loyal garrison of blacks, and while waiting here was surprised and murdered by the Mahdi's troops. British control over the Soudan was decided at Omdurman, where General Kitchener, commander of the Egyptian army, routed a horde of fifty thousand dervishes.

British protection is absolutely necessary for the

Arabi Pasha's
Rebellion, 1882

Gordon Mas-
sacred, 1885
Kitchener
at Omdur-
man, 1898

peace of Egypt. So much British capital is now invested there that the British dare not recede. The

Assouan Dam, 1908 great Assouan dam on the Nile will make thousands of once arid acres fertile, and secure a steady supply of water for thousands of farms that before produced small crops. It seems quite possible that in the near future a railroad will be built from Cape Town to Cairo, running almost entirely through British territory, and opening up the "Dark Continent" to the influences of civilisation.

306. Newfoundland. — This, the oldest British colony, was long regarded as of importance only as a fishing-station, its cod fisheries being the finest in the world. During the past twenty years the island has been carefully explored, and rich mines of copper, lead, and iron have been found. There are also vast areas of forest, with valleys well suited for raising hardy grains and vegetables. A railway across the island has opened up the interior for settlement. The French shore difficulty is a serious one. By different treaties French fishermen have been given equal rights with the British on the west and north shores. The British claim that the French hinder all improvements. Negotiations have several times been opened for the federation of Newfoundland with Canada, but so far with little success. It is altogether probable, however, that before many years Newfoundland will cast in her lot with the Dominion of Canada, in a "united British North America.

SECTION 8. EDWARD VII

307. A Constitutional King.—After being fifty-eight years Prince of Wales, much was expected of



EDWARD VII.

Albert Edward as king. When taking the oath of office he expressed a desire to walk in the footsteps of his mother, and so far, his course has satisfied the most exacting critic. His severe illness just at the

date set for his coronation in 1902 called forth the warmest sympathy from the whole world. His tact in making friends of foreign rulers may do more to avoid war than statesmen's diplomacy.

308. Lord Salisbury. — The Liberals did not remain long in power after the retirement of Mr. Gladstone. In 1895 Lord Salisbury, who had previously been twice prime minister, formed a coalition government made up of Conservatives and the Liberal-Unionists who left Mr. Gladstone because of his Home Rule Bill. Lord Salisbury held office until 1902, when he resigned owing to advanced age, having been prime minister longer than any other statesman since the accession of Victoria. He died at Hatfield House in August, 1903, regretted by a nation and sincerely mourned by his many tenants, to whom he had always been as a father. Like Disraeli, he was very firm in upholding the dignity of Britain abroad, and to this end he gave great attention to the improvement of the

Mr. Balfour
Premier, 1902 navy. Perhaps no other British statesman has been so firm in standing out against the encroachments of Russia in the East. Lord Salisbury was succeeded as prime minister by his nephew, Mr. Arthur J. Balfour.

309. Trip of the *Ophir*. — It was arranged by Queen Victoria that their Royal Highnesses the Duke and Duchess of Cornwall and York should make a trip to Australia in 1901 and open the first parliament of the Commonwealth. Sir Wilfrid Laurier asked that the royal trip might include a visit to Canada, and the

queen gave a gracious assent. After the death of Victoria, King Edward decided to carry out the original plans, and the royal party set out on the *Ophir*. Gibraltar, Malta, Aden, Ceylon, and Singapore were visited before reaching Australia. From Australia a trip was made to New Zealand and return before starting for South Africa. From South Africa the course was to Quebec, across Canada to Victoria, and thence back to Halifax. On the way from Halifax to Southampton the *Ophir* touched at Newfoundland. The whole trip occupied nearly eight months. Everywhere the heir-apparent was received with the greatest enthusiasm, and no doubt the trip did much to bind the several parts of the Empire together.

310. **Pacific Cable.** — During a period of about twenty years Sir Sanford Fleming of Ottawa was urging upon the Imperial government the advantages of a cable across the Pacific from Canada to Australia. After many conferences had been held and careful surveys made, it was arranged that Great Britain, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand should each bear a portion of the cost, and the cable, the first to cross the Pacific, was laid in 1902. The line begins at British Columbia, runs to Fanning Island, thence to Fiji, and then to Norfolk Island. From there the main line runs to Australia, while a branch line goes to New Zealand. Australia already had cable connection with Britain by way of South Africa, so that to-day it is possible to send a message around the world by cables and telegraph lines touch-

First Pacific
cable, 1902

ing only on British soil. The colonies are anchored to the mother country.

311. Hon. Joseph Chamberlain and Imperialism. — Mr. Chamberlain is a Liberal who left the Gladstone party because of the Home Rule Bill. Before this he had won a great name in Birmingham by his efforts to give that city a good municipal government.



JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN.

From 1895 until 1903 he was colonial secretary in the Unionist governments of Lord Salisbury and Mr. Balfour. His position brought him very prominently before the public during the Boer War.

For a whole generation statesmen in Britain and the colonies have been talk-

ing about the advantages of binding more closely together the several parts of the Empire. Those who favour a closer union are called *Imperialists*. Imperialists have different ideas as to the best way of promoting *Imperialism*. Some hope to see every part of the Empire sending members as representatives to an Imperial Parliament. Others think that the several parts of the Empire ought at least to unite in supporting a powerful British fleet. Yet

others believe that the surest way to promote an Imperial sentiment is to encourage trade within the Empire.

Britain imposes duties upon very few articles; but her colonies for the most part levy heavy taxes upon foreign goods, including those from the motherland. For seven years Canada has imposed upon British goods a lower customs tax than upon foreign goods. Mr. Chamberlain now advocates that Canada's example be followed by the other British colonies, and that the mother country impose a light tax on foreign grains and foodstuffs while admitting colonial produce free. This scheme of Imperial preferential tariff is already causing much stir in Britain, and is making Mr. Chamberlain a centre of interest for the whole Empire. In order that he might have the greatest possible liberty of speech and also have more time to explain his plan for Imperial unity, Mr. Chamberlain resigned his position as colonial secretary in September, 1903.

312. Irish Land Bill. — In August, 1903, the Land Bill for Ireland passed its third reading. The bill represents an attempt by the Unionist government of Premier Balfour to settle the Irish difficulty.

The Irish farmers are to be assisted by the Imperial government in buying their farms from the landlords. If the farmers become freeholders, it is hoped that they will take an increased interest in making comfortable homes for themselves. Irish Land Bill, 1903

Just as the Land Bill became law, King Edward and Queen Alexandra visited Ireland. Their loyal reception by the Irish people strengthens the hope that the king's well-known interest in Ireland will have its reward.

Royal visit
to Ireland,
1903

313. Canada, the United States, and Britain.—In 1842 the Ashburton Treaty fixed the boundary line between Maine and New Brunswick. Canadians think that their interests were sacrificed. Again in 1871 the United States secured the adoption of her main contentions in the Washington treaty.

In 1867 the Russian government sold Alaska to the United States. The boundary line between Alaska and British territory had been fixed by a Russian-British treaty in 1825. This treaty fixed the boundaries as follows: From the Arctic Ocean to Mt. St. Elias the 141st meridian of longitude west from Greenwich; from Mt. St. Elias the boundary was to turn south and follow the mountain peaks parallel with the ocean coast until it reached 56° N. Lat., thence to the head of Portland Channel; from this point the boundary was to follow Portland Channel to the southernmost point of Prince of Wales Island.

There was an additional clause in the treaty providing that in case the mountains parallel with the coast were more than ten marine leagues distant from the ocean, Russian territory was not to exceed that distance in width.

The mountain boundary proved very difficult to

determine, because there are several ranges of mountains parallel with the coast, and also because the coast is indented with deep fiords, and it was not clear whether the ten marine leagues inland were to be measured from the mouths of these fiords or from their heads. The course of Portland Channel was also in dispute, and its determination must decide the ownership of four islands, — Pearse, Wales, Sitklan, and Kannaghunut.

The discovery of gold in and near the disputed territory made the settlement of the boundary line both necessary and important. As Canada and the United States were unable to come to any agreement, it was arranged that the intention of the treaty of 1825 should be decided by a commission composed of three representatives from the United States, two from Canada, and Lord Alverstone, the chief justice of Great Britain.

The commission met in September, 1903, in London, it having been previously arranged that the decision of a majority should be binding and final. The decision conceded most of the claims of the United States. Portland Channel was defined in such a way as to give that nation Sitklan and Kannaghunut, two of the four disputed islands. The mountain boundary was adopted, and it was held that the coast line ran around the heads of the chief inlets.

The Canadian commissioners, Sir Louis Jetté and Mr. Aylesworth, refused to sign the award as a protest

against Lord Alverstone's decisions. The Canadians, for the most part, looked upon these decisions as a diplomatic compromise instead of a judicial finding.

There yet remains some 120 miles of mountain boundary to be fixed, but this will not likely cause any difficulty. Canadians were glad to have the matter settled, even if they secured, as they believe, scant justice.

CHAPTER IX

THE IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT

314. The King's Prerogative. — The British Parliament consists of three parts, — king, Lords, and Commons. No bill can become law unless it passes both Lords and Commons and receives the assent of the king.

The king has very little authority, but a great deal of influence. He has the right to prorogue or dissolve Parliament, sign or veto bills, create peers, pardon criminals, coin money, declare war, make peace treaties, appoint ambassadors to foreign courts, and choose the bishops and archbishops in the established church. But it is now a fixed principle of British rule that the king shall do none of these things except on the advice of his Cabinet expressed through the prime minister. The prime minister must take full responsibility for every official act of the sovereign.

Although the king's prerogative is limited in this way by his Cabinet, yet his preferences always have weight, and he may often succeed in carrying out his own plans. It is a common saying that a British sovereign has three rights: the right to be consulted,

the right to encourage, and the right to warn. With these rights it can easily be seen that a sovereign who has wise plans for the government of his people will have many opportunities to secure their adoption; while a sovereign whose plans are of doubtful wisdom will be held in check by experienced advisers responsible to Parliament.

315. House of Lords.—The House of Lords consists at present of 595 members, made up as follows: 4 peers of royal blood, 2 archbishops, 22 dukes, 23 marquises, 125 earls, 35 viscounts, 24 bishops, 316 barons, 16 Scottish peers, and 28 Irish peers. The Irish peers hold office for life, the Scottish peers are chosen for each Parliament, the bishops and archbishops sit by virtue of their clerical offices, while all other peers are *hereditary*, that is, the title goes to the direct male heir.

Any bills may be proposed in the Lords except such as involve taxation. Until recent times the Lords have freely used their right to reject bills passed in the Commons. In fact, they have often been the most persistent enemies of reform. At the present time they would scarcely venture to throw out a second time an important bill upon which the people had spoken clearly at a general election.

The House of Lords may go on with business if three peers are present, but a vote cannot be taken unless at least thirty are present. One peer, the Bishop of Sodor and Man, has a seat in the Lords but may neither vote nor speak.



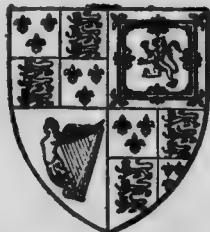
Royal arms of England from Richard I. to Edward III. (From the wall screen, south aisle of nave, Winchester Abbey.)



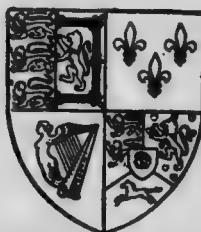
Royal arms of Edward III., adopted in 1338 and used till about 1360.
From the tomb of Edward III.



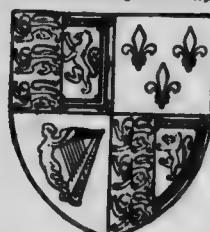
Royal arms as borne by Henry IV. after about 1360, and by successive sovereigns down to 1461.



Royal Arms borne by James I. and
successing Stuart sovereigns.



Royal Arms as borne from 1707 to 1801.



Royal Arms as borne by Anne.



Royal arms from 1801 to 1816 : the Hanoverian arms being superimposed by an additional shield.



Royal arms from 1816 to 1837 : the Hanoverian arms being superseded by a royal crest.



Royal Arms as borne by William IV.



Summary of the Royal Arms, as borne
under King George V.

ROYAL ARMS OF ENGLAND.

316. House of Commons. — In the time of Queen Elizabeth the Commons consisted of 462 members. At the time of the first Reform Bill the number was 658. The present Commons contains 670 members, made up as follows: 465 from England, 30 from Wales, 72 from Scotland, and 103 from Ireland.

The British Commons is the most important legislative body in the world. Its rules of procedure have been substantially adopted by every colonial legislature in the Empire, and copied by the legislatures of the several States in the American Union. All public meetings of whatever nature, among English-speaking people, are conducted according to its rules.

The members, except those who are Cabinet ministers, receive no pay; but among a people as wealthy as the British there is no lack of eminent men who are ready to give their services to the state.

In both Lords and Commons bills must be read and voted upon three times before they are finally passed. The first reading is without discussion, the second reading involves debate and perhaps amendments, while the third reading is a final adoption or rejection of the bill as amended.

The Commons *adjourn* from day to day, or perhaps for a whole month. Parliament is *prorogued* by the king when the business of the session is finished. After the king *dissolves* Parliament, an election must take place before another Parliament can meet.

317. Cabinet Government. — We have seen how the few trusted advisers of the kings got the name of *Cabinet*. We have also learned that after the accession of the German House of Hanover the kings took little part in actual government. This of course still further increased the importance of the king's Cabinet; in fact made it the real ruler of the kingdom.

It is quite true that George III tried to assert the

same control over his ministers as was exercised by kings of England before the eighteenth century. It is also true that he was largely successful, but he exercised his control by choosing only such ministers as would do his bidding. He did not interfere directly with Cabinet meetings nor make any changes in the nominal powers of Cabinet ministers.

With the Reform Bill of 1832 Cabinet government assumed its modern form. From that time it may truly be said to be a form of government directly responsible to the people. Before the Reform Bill the Cabinet might or might not contain the ablest men of the party in power; since the Reform Bill it is impossible that any party can rule unless the Cabinet contains the men in whom a majority of the electors have confidence.

As our system of Cabinet government is peculiar to English-speaking countries, and as it is a growth of centuries, we shall do well to study it carefully. We cannot do this better than by an actual examination of it as it is to-day. When Lord Rosebery, the Liberal premier, resigned in 1895, his resignation destroyed his Cabinet; there was for the time no British Cabinet. The resignation was placed in the hands of Queen Victoria. In theory her choice of a new prime minister was unlimited, but in actual fact she had no choice. Lord Salisbury was the recognised leader of the Conservatives, and as the Conservative members in the Commons were in a majority, he was the only man who could hope to secure

their support. Accordingly the queen sent for Lord Salisbury and asked him to form a government.

He must now choose some eighteen or twenty colleagues to act as heads of the several branches of government, or, in other words, he must form a *Cabinet*. He must choose some man skilled in finance to look after the revenue and expenditure of the kingdom. In Britain this official is called the *Chancellor of the Exchequer*. As all motions affecting the expenditure of money must originate in the House of Commons, it is absolutely necessary that the chancellor of the exchequer be a member of the Commons. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach was the most skilled financier among the Conservatives. He was also a skilled debater and was accordingly chosen. He then had to be re-elected to his seat in the Commons to make it quite clear that he was approved of by the people.

In the same way Lord Salisbury chose men for the other positions, a Home Secretary, a Colonial Secretary, a Lord-Lieutenant for Ireland, a Lord High Chancellor, a War Secretary, and several others.¹ The Lord High Chancellor, the Lord Privy Seal, and the Lord President of the Council are always chosen from the House of Lords.

When Lord Salisbury had his Cabinet completed, the names were submitted to the queen. She approved of the ministers, and they were installed in office after taking the necessary oaths.

¹ See Appendix.

As the members of the Cabinet give their whole time to their official duties, they are paid liberal salaries. Each Cabinet minister is responsible for his own department, but any matter of general importance, such as taxation or foreign relations, is discussed and decided upon in a Cabinet council. After the Cabinet has once agreed upon a certain course of action, every Cabinet minister is bound to give it his loyal support, and if any minister has any serious disagreement with his colleagues, he is in duty bound to resign. The Cabinet must be a unit upon every question of importance.

The Cabinet must adopt a policy that is approved of by a majority of the members in the Commons, otherwise the Commons would defeat the plans of the government on a money vote.

The prime minister and his Cabinet really rule the country. They decide upon what policy shall be followed, whether at home or abroad; they advise and are responsible for every official act of the sovereign; they decide upon and arrange for all important legislation except private bills; they administer every department of the government, and spend the money voted by Parliament. Although the people do not directly choose the members of the Cabinet, yet that body is so dependent upon a majority of the Commons that we may truly call Cabinet government government by the people. In no country in the world is it as certain as it is in Great Britain that the nation's wisest and most virtuous men will be its rulers.



APPENDIX I

THE NATIONAL DEBT OF GREAT BRITAIN

In 1792, at commencement of War of French Revolution	£239,663,421
In 1802, at Peace of Amiens	537,653,008
In 1815, after Waterloo	861,039,049
In 1837, at accession of Victoria	761,422,570
In 1854, before Crimean War	769,082,549
In 1857, at close of Crimean War	808,108,722
In 1898	644,909,847
In 1902, at close of Boer War, about	740,000,000

TYPICAL BUDGETS

NAPOLEON WAR BUDGET OF 1810

<i>Income</i>	<i>Expenditure</i>
Customs £13,816,218	Interest and Sinking
Excise 25,350,990	Fund for Debt £33,433,828
Stamps 5,546,082	Navy 20,058,412
Land taxes 8,011,205	Army and ordnance 23,188,631
Income tax 13,492,215	Civil List and Civil
Post-offices 1,471,746	Service 1,533,140
Loans 15,690,826	Loans to foreign
Miscellaneous 1,968,618	powers 2,050,082
Total £85,347,900	Miscellaneous 5,079,547
	Total £85,343,640

PEACE BUDGET OF 1820

<i>Income</i>		<i>Expenditure</i>
Customs	£11,475,259	National Debt and
Excise	28,941,629	Sinking Fund . £49,339,773
Stamps	6,853,986	Navy 5,943,879
Land taxes	8,192,301	Army and ordnance 10,281,702
Post-office	1,621,326	Civil List and Civil
Borrowed from		Service 2,268,940
Sinking Fund	13,833,783	Loans to foreign
Miscellaneous	1,867,308	powers 48,464
Total	<u>£72,785,592</u>	Miscellaneous 4,479,992
		Total <u>£72,362,750</u>

SIR ROBERT PEEL'S LAST BUDGET, 1846

<i>Income</i>		<i>Expenditure</i>
Customs	£22,612,708	Interest on Debt £27,656,555
Excise	15,563,084	Navy 7,803,464
Stamps	7,895,628	Army and ordnance 9,061,233
Land taxes	4,479,944	Civil List and Civil
Income tax	5,656,528	Service 2,736,806
Post-office	2,004,007	Miscellaneous 7,903,533
Miscellaneous	<u>1,489,505</u>	Total <u>£55,161,591</u>
Total	<u>£59,701,404</u>	

A CRIMEAN WAR BUDGET, 1855

<i>Income</i>		<i>Expenditure</i>
Customs	£21,991,675	Interest on Debt £27,864,533
Excise	17,042,295	Navy 14,490,105
Stamps	7,159,539	Army and ordnance 13,831,601
Land tax	3,225,121	Civil List and Civil
Income tax	10,922,266	Service 7,706,721
Post-office	2,635,336	Miscellaneous 5,242,026
Miscellaneous	<u>1,115,335</u>	Total <u>£69,134,986</u>
Total	<u>£64,091,567</u>	

A MODERN PEACE BUDGET, 1898

<i>Income</i>	<i>Expenditure</i>
Customs £21,798,000	Interest on Debt £25,000,000
Excise 28,300,000	Navy 20,852,000
Stamps and death duties 18,750,000	Army 19,330,000
Land tax 2,430,000	Civil List and Civil Service 22,818,003
Income tax 17,250,000	Miscellaneous 14,935,991
Post-office 12,170,000	
Telegraphs 3,010,000	
Miscellaneous 2,986,004	
Total £106,694,004	Total £102,935,994

BOER WAR BUDGET, 1901-1902.

<i>Income</i>	<i>Expenditure</i>
Customs £30,993,000	Interest on Debt £21,368,506
Excise 31,600,000	Annuities, pensions, and justice 2,515,710
Death duties 14,200,000	Army 92,757,000
Stamps 7,800,000	Navy 31,030,000
Land tax 725,000	Civil Service 30,426,000
House duty 1,775,000	Revenue depart- ments 2,955,000
Income tax 34,800,000	Deficit on Telegraph service 819,000
Profit from post-office 4,298,000	Miscellaneous 66,972
Crown lands 455,000	
Suez Canal shares 847,570	
Sardinian Loan 3,608	
Miscellaneous 1,916,794	
Total £129,413,972	Total £181,938,188

PRIME MINISTERS SINCE 1702

T = Tory; W = Whig; C = Conservative; L = Liberal; U = Unionist

INSTALLED	PRIME MINISTER	DURATION Yrs.	Days
8 May, 1702.	Earl of Godolphin, T.	7	93
1 June, 1711.	Earl of Oxford, T.	3	59
30 July, 1714.	Duke of Shrewsbury, W.	91	
5 Oct., 1714.	Earl of Halifax, W.	236	
10 Oct., 1715.	Robert Walpole, W.	1	144
10 April, 1717.	James Stanhope, W.	337	
16 March, 1718.	Earl of Sunderland, W.	3	2
20 March, 1721.	Robert Walpole, W.	20	326
11 Feb. 1742.	Earl of Wilmington, W.	1	9
26 July, 1743.	Henry Pelham, W.	116	
20 Nov., 1744.	Henry Pelham, W.	9	106
10 Feb., 1746.	Earl of Bath		2
12 Feb., 1746.	Henry Pelham, W.	8	22
27 April, 1754.	Duke of Newcastle, W.	2	205
16 Nov., 1756.	Duke of Devonshire, W.	142	
June, 1757.	Duke of Newcastle, W.	4	335
May, 1762.	Earl of Bute		319
April, 1763.	George Grenville, W.	2	85
12 July, 1765.	Marquis of Rockingham, W.	1	20
2 Aug., 1766.	Duke of Grafton, W.	3	176
28 Jan., 1770.	Lord North, T.	12	48
20 March, 1782.	Marquis of Rockingham, W.		104
3 July, 1782.	Earl of Shelburne, W.		273
5 April, 1783.	Duke of Portland (Coalition)		259
23 Dec., 1783.	William Pitt, T.	17	79
17 March, 1801.	Henry Addington, T.	3	55
15 May, 1804.	William Pitt, T.	1	253
11 Feb., 1806.	Lord Grenville, W.	1	43
31 March, 1807.	Duke of Portland, T.	2	243

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INSTALLED	PRIME MINISTER	DURATION Yrs. Days
2 Dec., 1809.	Spencer Percival, T.	3 161
9 June, 1812.	Earl of Liverpool, T.	14 39
24 April, 1827.	George Canning, T.	106
5 Sept., 1827.	Viscount Goderich, T.	125
25 Jan., 1828.	Duke of Wellington, T.	2 295
22 Nov., 1830.	Earl Grey, L.	3 236
18 July, 1834.	Viscount Melbourne, L.	128
26 Dec., 1834.	Sir Robert Peel, C.	108
18 April, 1835.	Viscount Melbourne, L.	6 144
6 Sept., 1841.	Sir Robert Peel, C.	4 296
6 July, 1846.	Lord John Russell, L.	5 230
27 Feb., 1852.	Earl Derby, C.	293
28 Dec., 1852.	Earl of Aberdeen, L.	3 33
10 Feb., 1855.	Viscount Palmerston, L.	3 10
25 Feb., 1858.	Earl of Derby, C.	1 106
18 June, 1859.	Viscount Palmerston, L.	6 122
6 Nov., 1865.	Earl Russell, L.	232
6 July, 1866.	Earl of Derby, C.	1 234
27 Feb., 1868.	Benjamin Disraeli, C.	279
9 Dec., 1868.	W. E. Gladstone, L.	5 70
21 Feb., 1874.	Earl of Beaconsfield, C.	6 59
28 April, 1880.	W. E. Gladstone, L.	5 56
24 June, 1885.	Marquis of Salisbury, C.	221
1 Feb., 1886.	W. E. Gladstone, L.	175
26 July, 1886.	Marquis of Salisbury, C.	6 23
18 Aug., 1892.	W. E. Gladstone, L.	1 196
3 March, 1894.	Earl of Rosebery, L.	1 118
29 June, 1895.	Marquis of Salisbury, U.	7 12
12 July, 1902.	A. J. Balfour, U.	

**MINISTERS OF CABINET RANK IN THE SALISBURY
GOVERNMENT OF 1895**

<i>Office</i>	<i>Salary</i>	<i>Minister</i>
First Lord of the Treasury	£5,000	Rt. Hon. A. J. Balfour
Lord High Chancellor . . .	10,000	Lord Halsbury
Lord Chancellor of Ireland	8,000	Lord Ashbourne
Lord President of the Privy Council	2,000	Duke of Devonshire
Lord Privy Seal	2,000	Viscount Cross
Chancellor of Exchequer . . .	5,000	Sir M. Hicks-Beach
Home Secretary	5,000	Sir M. White-Ridley
Secretary of State for For- eign Affairs	5,000	Lord Salisbury
Colonial Secretary	5,000	Rt. Hon. Jos. Chamberlain
War Secretary	5,000	Marquis of Lansdowne
Secretary of State for India	5,000	Lord Geo. Hamilton
First Lord of Admiralty . . .	4,500	Rt. Hon. G. J. Goschen
Lord-Lieutenant for Ireland	20,000	Earl Cadogan
Secretary to Lord-Lieuten- ant for Ireland	4,425	Rt. Hon. G. W. Balfour
Secretary for Scotland . . .	2,000	Lord Balfour of Burleigh
Chancellor for Duchy of Lancaster	2,000	Sir Henry James
President of Board of Trade	2,000	Rt. Hon. C. T. Ritchie
President of Local Govern- ment Board	2,000	Rt. Hon. Henry Chaplin
President of Board of Agri- culture	2,000	Rt. Hon. Walter H. Long

**ANNUAL GRANTS BY THE IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT
TO THEIR MAJESTIES AND OTHER MEMBERS
OF THE ROYAL FAMILY IN 1902**

Their Majesties' Privy Purse	£110,000
Salaries of H. M. Household and Retired Allowances	125,800
Expenses of Household	193,000
Works	20,000
Royal Bounty and Alms	13,200
Unappropriated	8,000
Total	£470,000

His Majesty also has the revenues of Duchy of Lancaster, £61,000

GRANTS TO ROYAL FAMILY

Prince of Wales	£20,000
Princess of Wales	10,000
King's Daughters	18,000
Duke of Connaught	25,000
Princess Christian	6,000
Princess Louise	6,000
Princess Henry of Battenberg	6,000
Duchess of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha	6,000
Duchess of Albany	6,000
Duchess of Mecklenberg-Strelitz	3,000
Duke of Cambridge	12,000
The Prince of Wales also gets the revenue of Duchy of Cornwall	70,000

APPENDIX II

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

FROM THE LATEST OBTAINABLE STATISTICS

	Area in Square Miles	Population
The British Empire	12,171,120	395,960,000

EUROPE

THE BRITISH ISLES (including the		
Channel Islands and Isle of Man)	121,377	41,454,621
England	51,000	30,827,914
Wales	7,378	1,698,161
Scotland	30,000	4,472,000
Ireland	31,759	4,456,546
EUROPEAN POSSESSIONS		
Gibraltar	2	26,830
Malta and Gozo	125	192,070

ASIA

Aden and Perim, Sokotra, etc.	1,467	53,910
British Borneo, Labuan, and Sarawak	84,031	688,411
Ceylon	25,365	3,576,990
Cyprus	3,584	237,022
Hong Kong	426	334,400
India and Burmah	1,700,000	294,266,701
Straits Settlements and Feudatory States	40,000	1,567,967
Wei-hai-wei	270	78,000

AFRICA

Cape Colony	276,775	1,787,960
Natal (with Zululand)	35,019	929,970

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	Area in Square Miles	Population
Orange River Colony	48,326	207,503
Transvaal Colony	119,109	867,897
Rhodesia	643,000	1,350,000
Basutoland	10,293	218,324
West Africa (Gambia, Sierra Leone, Gold Coast, and Lagos)	87,200	3,650,000
Mauritius, etc.	1,085	380,040
Seychelles Islands	148	20,275
Central Africa Protectorate	58,000	1,000,000
East Africa Protectorate	270,000	2,500,000
Nigeria Protectorate	346,730	24,000,000
West Africa Protectorate	30,000	500,000
Central Africa (Uganda)	58,000	1,000,000

AMERICA

The Dominion of Canada	3,606,546	5,390,740
Newfoundland	42,734	208,000
Labrador	120,000	4,106
West India Islands	12,329	1,442,829
Honduras	7,562	31,471
British Guiana	109,000	(est.) 286,484

AUSTRALASIA

Commonwealth of Australia	2,973,076	3,788,310
New Zealand	104,471	815,820

ISLANDS

South Sea Islands	22,311	330,000
Indian Ocean Islands	1,085	401,146
Atlantic Islands	4,894	25,140

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